

FIRST STEPS IN LIBRARIANSHIP

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A Student's Guide to the Library
Association Entrance Examination.

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LONDON,
GRAFTON
1950

Reprinted with amendments

MADE AND PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN BY THE
GARDEN CITY PRESS LIMITED, LETCHWORTH, HERTS

PREFACE

IN 1950 the Library Association will introduce a new and definitive syllabus of its professional requirements for chartered librarians. The new syllabus, although differing in many details from the one which it replaces, is nevertheless quite clearly based upon its predecessor, for whole parts of it are much the same as the 1946-49 syllabus, although the wording is different. There is little or no evidence that the actual standards of attainment at the three levels, Entrance, Registration and Final, will change, and in view of this I have based this book, which is a guide for students preparing for the Entrance examination, upon the general standards pertaining for the 1946-49 syllabus Entrance examination.

Some librarians might say that a text-book is not necessary for the Entrance examination. The 1946-49 syllabus suggested this: in fact, it went further and implied that no organised course would be necessary to prepare for this test. This was a most unfortunate implication, of course, which many students took at its face value and consequently failed the examination. The new syllabus contains no such statement but it does, happily, presume that the training of junior staff is supervised. Many librarians have, for years past, supervised the training of their junior assistants and this very book, in fact, is based on informal chats to student members of my own staff preparing for the Entrance examination. I am quite satisfied that, owing to the recommended reading being so diffuse, a

concentrated text-book was necessary for the old Entrance examination syllabus, and that it will be equally necessary for the new one. Apart from the A.A.L. correspondence courses, and several part-time lecture courses run chiefly by technical colleges and schools in London and the larger provincial cities, there exists no real guidance for library assistants who are preparing for this most important introductory examination in librarianship.

Even the list of text-books printed in the *Library Association Year Book* has up to now been more of a hindrance than a help to students, because there has been no distinction between elementary, intermediate and advanced books. I am glad to see that the Library Association has now produced a *graded* list of text-books in its current *Year Book*.

Although I have followed the syllabus very closely for the convenience of students, this is *not* intended to be a cram-book. It does not contain, by any means, the answers to all possible questions which may be posed in the various parts of the Entrance examination. What I have tried to do is to put between two covers a conspectus of the knowledge required for the examination, but students must not regard this book as a substitute for all others. It will be seen that at the end of each chapter I have appended some suggestions for further reading, and it must be clearly understood that these are lists of *minimum* requirements. The student who has the time and inclination for more reading than is suggested should certainly undertake it.

Students are earnestly advised to work to a plan in preparing for the examination. A notebook should be obtained and written up when working through each chapter of this book and its attendant readings. The

notes should be thoroughly learnt and then students should attempt the questions at the end of each chapter, working under examination room conditions, that is, without notes or text-books, and allowing 25 to 30 minutes only for the writing of each answer.

In conclusion, is it too much to hope that this little book will prove useful to some of the senior members of our profession who may find themselves charged with the responsibility of supervising and helping their juniors in preparation for the examination? No one can remain up to scratch in every aspect of librarianship without frequent revision, and I feel that some seniors might find the book helpful for rapid revision.

I am indebted to the Library Association for permission to quote questions from previous examination papers, and to Mr E. T. Bryant, F.L.A., who has read the MS and made some valuable suggestions. I should also like to express here my indebtedness to Mr. F. A. Richards, F.L.A., and to Mr. T. E. Callander, F.L.A. Both these librarians will find evidence of their own ideas in this book, as also will the authors of nearly every previous text-book on librarianship, to whom my debt is incalculable. The responsibility for opinions expressed remains, of course, entirely my own.

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Chapter I

A GENERAL VIEW OF BRITISH LIBRARIES

THIS chapter, and this book, begins with an urgent warning and a practical examination hint to all young students of librarianship—DO NOT REGARD YOUR OWN LIBRARY AND ITS PRACTICES AS TYPICAL OF ALL OTHERS. It is true that library methods, particularly in rate-supported libraries, are much more standardised than they used to be, but amid all this standardisation, methods peculiar to particular libraries still exist, and it behoves the young student to enquire into the why and wherefore of his own library routine, to visit as many other libraries as possible and to read his professional journals with a receptive yet critical mind

The capitalised warning above is really given to remind students that many different *types* of libraries exist—urban public libraries, county libraries, national libraries, university libraries and special libraries—and it is a common fault in examinees, particularly those from urban public libraries, who constitute the majority, to regard their own library as the only existing kind or size, and to ignore the very different and peculiar problems of other kinds and sizes. Owing to the predominance of the number of urban public libraries over all others, this trend is natural, but it must never be forgotten that county library practice and problems differ from university library practice, and that special libraries differ greatly in their scope

and use from urban public libraries. This book, catering for the majority, presents chiefly the urban library viewpoint, but attention will be drawn to county library practice, where it differs from the urban.

RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

Before describing further the public library system of Great Britain, it is necessary to look at the framework of local government in general. Briefly, the local government units, in *descending* order of power, are county councils, county boroughs, municipal boroughs, urban districts, rural districts, parish councils.

Every local authority in Great Britain, with a few exceptions, falls into one or other of the above categories. The exceptions are the 28 Metropolitan Boroughs, such as Holborn, Battersea and Chelsea, and the Common Council of the City of London, which is a law unto itself, possessing many powers by virtue of ancient charters from the Crown.

A county borough is a borough with all the powers of a county council. For example, it is its own education and police authority. It is, in fact, a county within a county. Students should note that a county borough is not necessarily the "county town," which is, strictly speaking, the assize town. Note also that there is no such category as "city" in the above hierarchy, cities usually being county boroughs as far as local government administration is concerned. Municipal boroughs have fewer powers than county boroughs as many students may know, they have in the last few years lost to the county councils their one-time powers to run their own elementary schools and police. Municipal boroughs may no longer adopt the Public Libraries Acts, but those which adopted the Acts

before their county councils may retain their library powers. Can I explain this with an example? Hove, a municipal borough, adopted the Public Libraries Acts in 1892, many years before East Sussex, the administrative county in which the town is situated. By reason of this priority in adoption, Hove has so far been allowed to retain its library powers, but if the town had not adopted the Acts before the East Sussex County Council did so, it would not have been allowed to do so since without special permission from the county.

Urban district councils have even fewer powers than municipal boroughs. Like the latter, they may adopt the Public Libraries Acts only if their county councils allow them to do so. Rural and parish councils have very few powers these days, being mainly responsible to their county councils for the state of the highways in their areas.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES ACTS

What are these Public Libraries Acts which I have mentioned? They are, in brief, Parliament's sanction for the setting-up and managing of public rate-supported libraries. Parliament is the fount from which all local government law springs, and Parliamentary Acts of 1850, 1892 and 1919 (as well as those of other but less important dates) are the authority for the provision, government and financing of public libraries. The Public Libraries Act of 1850 is important as being the first law authorising the provision of public libraries as we know them to-day. Although this Act was a great step forward, it was also a very hesitant step, as it merely allowed town councils of 10,000 population and over to provide a building, a librarian, light and fuel. The Act laid down that admission was to be free, but no authority was given for the purchase

of books, and no town council could levy a rate of more than $\frac{1}{2}$ d in the £

This rate limitation, as it became known, was raised to 1d. in the £ in 1855. Power to purchase books was also granted, and subsequently further Acts were passed to amend certain clauses in the original Act of 1850 and to make additional provisions. Eventually, the important Public Libraries Act of 1890 was passed. This was a *consolidating Act*, that is, one that gathers together the still relevant provisions of previous Acts, adds new legislation and becomes the principal Act, making all previous ones of historical value only. In 1919, another very important Act was passed, the main provisions of which were the abolition of the penny rate limitation in England and Wales, and the permission given to county councils to set up their own library services. The 1919 Act also laid down, as I have already briefly mentioned, that county councils could adopt the Public Libraries Acts for the whole or any part of the county, *except* those parts which were already library authorities at the time of the county adoption.

This is the present legal state of rate-supported libraries in England and Wales, but the question of public library law is wrapped up with the wider question of local government law. As I write, local government boundaries, responsibilities and laws appear ready to go into the melting-pot. If and when they do, obviously the whole structure of public library organisation and law will go with them, and many changes will accrue. One amendment to current library law in Scotland is overdue and is expected to be made very soon. Over the Border, a rate limitation of 3d in the £ still exists to stifle public library development, but a Bill is shortly expected to pass through

Parliament abolishing this Scottish rate limitation

URBAN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Urban public library systems are now, as I have already said, fairly standardised throughout Great Britain and as a rule vary only in their size. In the smallest systems there is usually one library in the centre of the town, and this building contains all the usual departments—lending library, children's room, reference department and news and magazine room. There will also, of course, be offices, work and staff rooms, janitor's quarters and store rooms. In larger towns, the central library is augmented by branch libraries, which may vary considerably in size and in scope. Branch libraries, in fact, range from a few shelves in a school-room open once or twice a week, to the large branch in a city suburb, a branch which is often as big as, or bigger, than a small town library. Branches also range from the modern one-room building to be found in some suburban areas, to the converted shops and air-raid shelters which have been pressed into service in the outlying parts of our blitzed cities.

Where branch libraries exist, the question of centralisation or decentralisation of such work as book selection, accessioning, cataloguing and classification is sure to arise. In the older systems with branch libraries, decentralisation was frequently the rule. The new books were often selected and ordered centrally, but each branch did its own classification, accessioning and cataloguing. Systems of more recent origin favour complete centralisation of work, owing to the obvious advantages of uniformity and economy of technical staff.

It would be invidious to select good examples of urban library systems in these days when the majority

of them conform to a reasonable standard. A few must be mentioned, however, and of the largest systems Manchester, with its fine central library, is prominent, while Leeds is important for several interesting branches. Hendon is an excellent medium-sized system, while Coulsdon and Purley is an admirable example of a modern suburban system with branches.

COUNTY LIBRARIES

As has already been mentioned, county libraries were not authorised until 1919 and are consequently still young, although they have long since left their infancy behind. In their brief existence of thirty years (interrupted by World War II) the county libraries have tackled their task with such success that there are now few villages, hamlets and rural areas, however remote, without a book service. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust is really responsible for the initiation and development of county libraries, having provided the original impetus, and having given generous grants to the systems in their early days.

County library systems work from a headquarters which is normally but not always situated near the county council offices in the "county" town. This headquarters is sometimes merely a large work-room or clearing-house where books are selected, ordered, accessioned, catalogued and despatched to the various branches and centres all over the county. It also houses the reservoir of stock used for students' services and branch requests. A great deal of work is involved in sending books by post from the headquarters to individual students. The public is not usually admitted to such a headquarters, but in some instances, especially where there is no other public library in the

town, part of the headquarters may be set aside as a public department, thus virtually becoming a county branch library within the headquarters building.

As the county library must supply books throughout the county to such widely differing communities as towns, villages, hamlets and scattered rural areas, it uses diverse methods to attain its objectives. Towns are now usually served by full-time branch libraries, often one-room buildings containing adult and junior sections with some quick-reference books in addition. Such branches will have a permanent staff with a chartered librarian in charge. Villages and hamlets often have a collection of books in a school or church room, open several hours each week and supervised by a voluntary librarian, while more scattered areas may be served by a library van or "bookmobile" as they say in the United States. This van not only makes regular tours of the county according to a fixed schedule each week or fortnight, but also delivers and exchanges boxes of books to the smaller centres.

The book stocks of all county library branches, large or small, are continually replenished and exchanged, usually by the library's own transport. The branch librarian often chooses his own stock from headquarters, and also decides which volumes he will return, so that the branch book selection is done according to local needs. This frequent exchange of books at county library branches and centres gives them a big advantage over the urban public library, where the books, once bought and added to stock, stay in stock often to become stale. The county library branch stock is continually being freshened, although it must be remembered that its ever-changing stock is sometimes an annoyance to the reader who

wishes to re-read a book which was once in stock at his branch but which has since been returned to the headquarters or sent to some other branch. Frequent stock changes also mean that branch staffs never get to know the book stock really well. Generally speaking, though, the system is excellent, with the fresh, attractive state of the stock being a great boon to readers. And it must not be forgotten that a county library system is like a miniature regional library system, for individual books not in stock at a branch can always be obtained reasonably quickly from the particular branch which possesses them.

There are many good county library systems in the country, Middlesex, Lancashire, Herefordshire, Cheshire and West Sussex particularly having excellent reputations. Those students whose library experience is confined to urban systems should make every endeavour before the examination to visit a county library headquarters or a full-time county branch.

UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

It has long been recognised that universities must have good libraries as aids to their work of advanced education, and on the whole the universities of Great Britain have now got excellent libraries and librarians. Normally, university libraries are open only to members and students of the university, but their resources are often made available to any bona-fide research worker who cannot find his information elsewhere. The most famous university libraries in Great Britain are the Bodleian Library at Oxford and the Cambridge University Library. Both these benefit under the Copyright Acts in that they receive a copy of every publication issued in the United Kingdom. The

Bodleian dates from the fourteenth century, although it was 1598 before Sir Thomas Bodley rescued it from disrepute and founded its present greatness. Since then it has grown tremendously and in 1946 His Majesty the King opened the latest extensions, which are designed to be large enough to house the library for the next 200 years.

The Cambridge University Library has had a quieter growth, and although not as large as the British Museum or the Bodleian, it possesses over a million volumes and was re-housed in a striking new building in 1934. In London, as well as the London University Library, there are the libraries of King's College and of University College, while in the provinces the university libraries of Manchester, Leeds and Southampton are notable, all these three having had new buildings in the years just before World War II. A word must be added about the Scottish university libraries of St Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh, all very old-established and each of them almost as large as the Bodleian and Cambridge University libraries.

NATIONAL LIBRARIES

Mention has just been made of the Copyright Acts, and that the Bodleian and Cambridge University libraries enjoy privileges under these Acts. Four other libraries also receive a copy of each book published under the Copyright Acts, and these are the British Museum, the National Library of Scotland, Trinity College Library, Dublin, and the National Library of Wales. The latter, however, does not enjoy the *full* privileges of "copyright deposit," as it is called.

The British Museum is the English national library,

financed by the Treasury and by endowments, and like most English institutions it has had a chequered growth. Its history began in 1753 when the trustees of Sir Hans Sloane offered his priceless collection of books and MSS to the nation for £20,000. Parliament accepted this offer and at the same time made arrangements to purchase the Harleian MSS. The British Museum's first premises were in Piccadilly, but in 1823 that noted patron of the arts King George IV gave his father's library (now known as the King's Library) to the country, and the British Museum moved to its present site. Many extensions have since been made to that first building in Bloomsbury and now the British Museum is one of the world's greatest libraries, possessing over 4,000,000 printed books and over 150,000 MSS.

The National Library of Scotland is at Edinburgh. It was originally the library of the Faculty of Advocates and its privilege of copyright deposit dates back to 1709. It was transferred to the nation in 1925 and now possesses over a million books and MSS. The National Library of Wales is particularly rich in books written in Welsh. It was begun in 1909 and now has about a million printed books and nearly 300,000 documents contained in a fine building overlooking the sea at Aberystwyth.

SPECIAL LIBRARIES

Apart from the types of library which have already been very briefly described—urban, county, university and national—the United Kingdom is also rich in special libraries, that is, those which house collections of books on particular subjects. Some of these special libraries are publicly owned, such as the Library of the

Victoria and Albert Museum, which contains over 150,000 volumes on the fine arts. Many other special libraries are owned by professional associations and societies, such as the Institution of Electrical Engineers, which has a special library of books on electrical engineering, and our own Library Association, which collects books and other material on librarianship. Another type of special library is that owned and maintained by an industrial organisation, such as Kodak, with its library of books, etc., on all aspects of photography, or the branches of I.C.I., with their special libraries on chemical technology.

A feature of the work of special libraries is that they collect not only books, but also periodicals, pamphlets, cuttings and MSS on their particular subjects, and this fugitive material, as we call it, is kept in vertical files and fully indexed. Neither the libraries of professional organisations nor those belonging to industrial firms are normally open to the public, but these libraries are often Outlier Libraries of the National Central Library, and books belonging to them are often made available to individual members of the public through the channels of library co-operation. Special libraries deal largely with postal and telephone enquiries, and much less frequently with personal callers. The special libraries of industrial concerns are frequently off-shoots of the research departments of those firms.

LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

What exactly is meant by library co-operation? What are the Regional Library systems? What part is played in library co-operation by the National Central Library? What are Outlier Libraries? The student should read the ensuing section very carefully,

for library co-operation is a most important aspect of modern librarianship and the examiners are very prone to put questions on this subject

Co-operation began as the approach to an ideal, that of being able to provide any book for any reader. At one time, if a reader entered his local library and asked for a book which was not in stock he was told that the book was not available and that was the end of that. Now, thanks to library co-operation, we can honestly say that when a reader enters the doors of his local library he virtually enters at the same time the doors of nearly every library in the country and quite a number outside it, for library co-operation has now been developed on international as well as on national lines.

The first step in the present scheme of library co-operation began in 1916 when the Central Library for Students was formed chiefly to supply books to adult classes such as those of the Workers' Educational Association. The need for such a library was soon apparent from the measure of work which it did and, thanks to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, it rapidly developed both in scope and use. In 1931 it became known as the National Central Library and it is now financed by Government grant, by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, by the Rockefeller Foundation and by subscriptions from libraries all over the country. The National Central Library* is no longer reliant upon its own book resources—a number of public and special libraries throughout the country are attached to it and have agreed to lend books to other libraries through the N C L. These are called Outhier Libraries.

* The N C L was badly damaged by air raids during World War II and lost over 100,000 books.

[At this point I strongly recommend students to look up the latest Annual Report of the N.C.L. in order to get some idea of the invaluable work which it does. There is almost certain to be a copy in your library.]

Besides the Outhier Libraries, the N.C.L. now has the Regional Library systems upon which to call. The country is divided into nine regions for the purposes of library co-operation, and within each region libraries have banded themselves together with a working headquarters usually in the largest city within the region. For instance, the North-Western Regional Library System, which covers Lancashire, Cheshire and the Isle of Man, has its headquarters at Manchester, while the South-Eastern Regional Library System, covering the Home Counties, has its headquarters in London, adjoining the N.C.L. London libraries, by the way, have a separate scheme of library co-operation known as the London Union Catalogue.

Eight of the Regional systems have at their headquarters a union catalogue, that is, a catalogue of all non-fiction books in the stock of the constituent libraries. An application for a book comes in from a library and the headquarters consults its union catalogue and sends on the application to a library possessing the book. The North-Western Regional Library System works without a union catalogue: it collects applications and circulates to its constituent libraries a bi-weekly list of desiderata. Each library then reports back to the headquarters which books it is able to lend, and the headquarters arranges the actual lending transaction.

All the Regional systems are co-ordinated through the N.C.L., and when an application for a particular book cannot be satisfied from within the region, it is

sent on to the N.C.L., which first taps its own stock, or its Outlier Libraries, or other Regional systems, and it is rarely that an application goes entirely unsatisfied. The financing of a Regional Library system is effected by subscriptions from all member libraries.

CONCLUSION

I hope that this survey of the library system of Great Britain, although very brief, has been sufficient to reveal to the young student the different kinds and sizes of libraries which exist to-day, and that the full meaning of my urgent warning at the beginning of this chapter is now apparent. Most candidates for the Entrance examination will have had experience in one type of library only, but they should make every effort to visit other types before the examination. It frequently happens that the examiners ask for a description of some aspect of work in the candidate's own library. Questions of this kind are quite explicit and the candidate should give a simple explanation of what actually happens in his own library. But all other questions on administration and procedure should be weighed carefully in the light of the problems of all kinds of libraries, and candidates should not rush in with a description of their own library methods unless this is specifically demanded.

Finally, students should bear in mind the various organisations which have played leading parts in the development of librarianship, such as the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and, of course, the Library Association. The work of the C.U.K.T. should be particularly studied—its assistance to local authorities by the provision of library buildings and grants for book purchases, its pioneering work in the setting-up

of county library systems, and its interest in the N.C.L. and the Regional Library systems—these are great things which will never be forgotten in the history of librarianship. As for the Library Association, all students should learn the outline of its development so that they are prepared to write a short essay on the history of their own Association and its comprehensive work of promoting better libraries and librarians.

SOME FURTHER READING

Brown, J. D. Manual of library economy 6th ed revised by W. C. Berwick Sayers 1949
Chapters 35 and 36

Gray, Duncan Fundamentals of Librarianship 1949.
Chapters 4, 16 and 19

Jast, L. S. The Library and the community. 1939.
Chapters 3, 7, 10 and 11.

Minto, John. History of the public library movement in Great Britain and Ireland. 1932. *Chapters 5-12, 16-19.*

Newcombe, Luxmoore Library co-operation in the British Isles 1937 *Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6*

QUESTIONS

1. Trace briefly the developments which now make available to any public library reader a far wider range of books than that provided by his own local library
2. Give a brief account of the development and work of county library systems in England and Wales
3. Write a brief essay on the work of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust for libraries and librarianship in the United Kingdom.
4. Give a short account of the work of the National Central Library
5. What is meant by "copyright deposit"? Mention at least three libraries which benefit under the Copyright Acts
6. In what type of library are you employed? Give a general account of its departments and work.

Chapter II

THE LIBRARY COMMITTEE

ON reading the detailed syllabus of the Library Association Entrance examination, the student will note that under the heading "Organisation" he is expected to know something of (a) the authority by which libraries are controlled, and (b) the staff through whom the decisions and intentions of the authority are given effect. This section of the syllabus will be covered in this and in the following chapter, dealing with library committees and library staffs respectively.

To say that every library assistant should know how his library is governed would appear to be stressing the obvious, but experience has shown that very few candidates for the Entrance examination have any conception of the constitution, powers and duties of library committees. Many young students appear to labour under the delusion that the library runs itself or that the librarian himself is the sole arbiter. Admittedly, this examination demands only an *elementary* knowledge of library committees, but what students should try to acquire, although this is next to impossible, is some practical knowledge of the *workings* of committees, their agendas, their meetings and their minutes. One or two enlightened authorities have, in the past, allowed assistants to attend committee meetings as spectators and it is a pity that this practice has not been more widespread. In view of the fact

that students can glean from other text-books full details of the constitution and powers of library committees, I shall deal with these points only briefly, and shall concentrate more on giving students some idea of procedure and the practical aspects of committee work.

CONSTITUTION AND POWERS

I have already, in the previous chapter, touched very briefly on library laws, and the Acts of Parliament which concern rate-supported libraries. The law relating to library committees as far as England and Wales is concerned, is clearly stated in the Public Libraries Act of 1892, which lays down that urban authorities *may* (note that it said *may*, not *must*) appoint library committees and that they may delegate powers to them. The 1892 Act also laid down that persons appointed to library committees need not necessarily be members of the local authority, that is, aldermen and councillors. Such persons are called "co-opted members," and it should be noted that the 1892 Act put no limit on the number of co-opted members that could be appointed to library committees. It would have been possible, for instance, for a committee to have consisted of, say, five councillors and six non-councillors. In 1933 the law was amended to read that co-opted members must not exceed one-third of the total strength of the library committee. For example, if the total strength of a committee is 12, not more than 4 of those 12 may be co-opted members. Students should note, however, that there is no limitation as to the size of a library committee—it may consist of any number of people. In some towns the committee is as small as 5, in others it amounts to

20 or 30. The average size of a library committee is about 10 or 12—a sufficient number to be representative, yet not so large as to hamper expeditious dealing with library business.

Co-opted members can be very valuable for their scholarship or knowledge of special subjects. But it should be remembered that the higher the proportion of co-opted members, so much the smaller is the representation at council meetings. Students are urged to find out, if they do not already know, the size of their own library committees, and how many of the members are co-opted.

In Scotland, the library authority in burghs or parishes *must* appoint annually a committee of not less than 10 nor more than 20 members, half of whom must be members of the local authority, or magistrates, and the remaining half must be householders. The authority for this is the Public Libraries Consolidation (Scotland) Act, 1887.

In Ireland, all library committees may consist wholly of members of the authority or partly of such members and partly of other persons. The relevant Acts are :—

- (a) for urban districts, boroughs or towns (Public Libraries [Amendment] Act I, 1877),
- (b) for counties in N Ireland (Public Libraries Act [Northern Ireland], 1924);
- (c) for counties in Eire (Local Government Act, Irish Free State).

DELEGATION OF POWERS

The local council is the body responsible for library matters in its own town or district, but some councils delegate their powers to their library committees.

This means that as soon as the library committee decides on a certain course of action its decision immediately becomes law and does not need the approval of the council. Where powers have not been delegated, the minutes of the library committee are subject to the approval of the council, and no action can be taken upon those minutes until the council has given its approval. It must be noted here that, even when powers are delegated, there are some powers, such as the levying of a rate or the raising of a loan, which cannot be delegated and must remain under the control of the council as a whole.

The three kinds of library committees in municipalities are, therefore :—

- (a) executive, i.e. those with delegated powers ;
- (b) executive, subject to reporting to the council ;
- (c) recommending, i.e. those whose proceedings must be approved by the council before becoming law

The majority of authorities retain all but emergency powers, leaving it open to committees to consider and recommend.

The advantages of delegating powers are :—

- (a) business can be transacted expeditiously ;
- (b) business can be carried out by the committee most qualified to carry it out ;
- (c) when spending powers are limited anyway, council control would seem merely to be delay

The disadvantages are :—

- (a) councils are apt to be suspicious of the activities and spendings of bodies to which they have relinquished powers ;
- (b) executive committees work out of the public view and valuable press and other publicity is lost.

This latter is an extremely important point, for it is essential that the public should be kept fully informed of library events, such as the establishment of a new branch library, alterations of hours, important donations, etc. If powers are not delegated, the library committee's minutes will be printed with other committee minutes in the council agenda, they will come up for discussion at the council meeting, extracts will probably be printed by the local press and welcome publicity is thus obtained for the library.

SUB-COMMITTEES

Just as the library committee is really a sub-committee of the full council, charged with being responsible for the management and policy of the public library, most library committees find it necessary to remit the detailed aspects of library management to sub-committees. The most common sub-committees are *Accounts*, *Books*; *Lectures*; and *Staff*, though not all library committees appoint all four of the above. Much depends on the size of the library system. The majority of library committees appoint a Books Sub-committee, which meets at intervals to approve the librarian's suggested list of additions and to examine readers' recommendations. Staff Sub-committees are also fairly common: they deal with appointments and resignations and other questions relating to staff. Quite frequently, however, the appointment of junior assistants is left to the Chairman and the Chief Librarian to approve, while more detailed matters relating to staff, for example, annual reports on individual members of the staff, appointments to senior staff, etc., are dealt with by the full library committee. Accounts Sub-committees and Lectures Sub-committees

more or less speak for themselves, the former being constituted to examine the accounts and to recommend the full library committee to pass them for payment, while the latter formulates or approves lecture programmes organised by the librarian

The minutes of all sub-committees are, of course, submitted to the next meeting of the library committee for approval. All students should find out what sub-committees operate in their own library systems, and in what ways their constitution and duties differ in any essential from those I have described above.

THE LIBRARY COMMITTEE IN PRACTICE

But let us examine the practical working of committees. Generally speaking, committees meet monthly but some meet at longer intervals, say, quarterly. In some towns the librarian is clerk to the library committee, that is, he is responsible for sending out notices of meetings, for preparing the agenda and reports, for recording the minutes, and for all correspondence on behalf of the committee. This practice was at one time very common but now it is more general for this work to be done by the Town Clerk's department, as in the case of other committees. When this pertains, the librarian is still responsible for the preparation of his monthly or periodical report on the work of the library, and for drafting an agenda in consultation with his chairman. These he will send to the Town Clerk, who is responsible for sending out to committee members copies of the agenda, the monthly report, and the formal notices summoning them to the meeting. At the actual committee meeting the Town Clerk or his representative will be present to give legal advice when necessary and to record the minutes. Corre-

spondence of a formal nature is undertaken on behalf of the committee by the Town Clerk ; that of a routine nature is conducted by the librarian

AGENDAS

The contents of agendas will naturally vary from month to month but many items, such as the following, appear regularly.

Minutes of the previous meeting. these are read (sometimes they are taken as read), and after approval by the committee they are signed by the chairman as a correct record

Requisitions · this item is dealt with according to local practice. Sometimes the item consists merely of a list of cleaning materials, etc , required from the council stores ; in other cases it consists of asking the committee for formal permission to buy articles of furniture, shelving, etc., the purchase of which has already been allowed for in the estimates.

Accounts . all invoices incurred since the last meeting of the committee, having previously been certified as correct by the librarian and checked by the Treasurer's Department, are submitted to the committee for examination. As they are approved they are signed by the Chairman From the library committee they are passed to the Council's Finance Committee and are eventually paid after approval by the Council.

Librarian's Report : this will cover the work of the department since the committee's last meeting It usually consists of issue statistics, department by department, daily averages, numbers of new readers, principal donations, receipts and library news generally. Some librarians are content to make

their monthly reports a bare list of statistics, but the writer has found that the post-war councilor requires more than this to interest him, and that more committee interest is stimulated if the statistic can be presented imaginatively. Plain, unvarnished figures mean little or nothing to laymen or committee-men and an effort should be made to give reports a different news value each month. Without making the report too lengthy, short paragraphs can be included to stress such extension work as story hours, exhibitions, lectures, library lessons, etc., and altogether the monthly report can be welded into a powerful weapon for the progress and development of the library service. Of course, the monthly report is the chief librarian's business and not that of students for the Entrance examination, but junior assistants (some of them) become chiefs in a remarkably short time and it is never too early to get the right ideas into one's head.

Correspondence. this is a fairly regular item on committee agendas. Naturally, only correspondence which raises points of policy or which requires a committee decision is brought up under this heading. A letter from a reader requiring an explanation about the non-appearance of a book which he has reserved some time ago falls into the category of routine correspondence and would not be brought up before the committee by the librarian. On the other hand, a letter or written complaint from a reader disagreeing with the committee's method of selling back numbers of periodicals would have to be placed before the committee for consideration.

Book List: if there is no Books Sub-committee, the list of books added or recommended for addition

by the librarian is sometimes circulated to members of the full committee and may be discussed under this separate item of the agenda. The modern tendency, however, is to leave book selection in the hands of the librarian as part of his professional duties.

Staff : here again, if there is no Staff Sub-committee, this is a fairly regular item on the agenda, under which such questions as annual reports on staff, resignations and appointments are discussed

The above are the regular items on almost any library committee agenda. Other items, such as alterations of hours of opening, lecture programmes, exhibitions, book weeks, re-decoration of rooms and suggestions for a new branch library (to quote but a few at random) appear more occasionally

CONDUCT OF MEETING

The chairman of the committee is a most important person with whom the librarian should work in close co-operation. In order that the meeting may proceed expeditiously, and so that he shall have the fullest possible information on all topics on the agenda, the chairman is often provided with an "annotated" agenda. This is a private copy for the chairman, on which the librarian has written notes and possibly answers to anticipated questions from committee members.

The meeting usually begins with the minutes of the previous meeting being read and, after approval, these are signed by the chairman as a correct record. Then follow the other items in the order in which they are written on the agenda—accounts, requisitions, librarian's report, etc. Sometimes these items are approved by the committee without comment, but the

librarian should always be prepared to answer questions, sometimes unexpected ones, on any item on the agenda [The meeting is "run" by the chairman, and the librarian, generally, should speak only when he is spoken to] But the librarian is, after all, the professional adviser of the committee and sensible chairmen and committees encourage and value his contributions to the meeting. For this reason the librarian should attend the meeting armed with all possible facts and figures in order to answer questions from committee members

ANNUAL ESTIMATES

The financial aspects of running the library are considered by the Library Committee when the annual estimates come up for consideration. The draft figures for these estimates are prepared by the librarian, in consultation with the Treasurer's Department, in the following form.—

Item	EXPENDITURE		
	Estimated expenditure 1950-1	Actual expenditure 1950-1	Estimated expenditure
			1951-2
	£	£	£
Salaries ..	6,000	5,882	6,250
Wages ..	1,092	1,120	1,150
Books ..	4,750	4,800	5,000
Binding ..	1,250	1,272	1,400
Periodicals ..	350	337	350
Electricity ..	200	215	225
Gas ..	35	40	40
Water ..	10	10	10
Fuel ..	250	275	300
Printing, stationery ..	300	310	300
Rates ..	186	186	195
etc., etc.			

Item	INCOME		
	Estimated income 1950-1	Actual income 1950-1	Estimated income 1951-2
Fines..	600	710	700
Sale of papers	45	48	50
Reserved books	65	73	75
Lost and damaged books	35	38	40
Income from rate ..	15,982	16,281	16,682

The above figures are, of course, hypothetical, and should not be regarded as actual or proportionate for any particular library system.

After the estimates have been thus drafted, they are printed and copies are sent to committee members prior to the meeting. At the meeting, each item will be considered individually and the librarian will no doubt be called upon to explain his financial requirements for the forthcoming year. After consideration, amendments and approval, the Library Committee's estimates are then passed on to the Finance Committee, which considers all committees' estimates. The Finance Committee has power to alter estimates, or to request alterations, after which the figures are sent to the Council for final approval, and become the official estimates for the following year. The librarian is the officer responsible for keeping expenditure within these estimates, particularly in such direct items of expenditure as books, binding and printing. Under some headings, such as wages or electricity, overspendings are often outside the librarian's control, due perhaps to an unexpected award in the shape of a janitor's wage increase, or an unanticipated rise in electricity charges.

SUPPLEMENTARY ESTIMATES

The financial year for local authorities runs usually from April 1st of one year to March 31st of the next, and the annual estimates cover income and expenditure during that period. Sometimes circumstances arise which necessitate urgent approval for extra expenditure in the middle of the financial year. When such circumstances arise, the librarian prepares what is known as a *supplementary estimate*. This, after Library Committee approval, is forwarded to the Finance Committee and then to the Council for sanction. Normally, the librarian and his committee should make every effort to avoid asking for supplementary estimates, which are naturally not popular with finance committees.

I have tried in the foregoing to give the young student a comprehensive account of the Library Committee at work, but it is very difficult to describe practical committee work in the pages of a book. What I have described is the fairly general practice for municipal public libraries, but practices naturally differ in detail from town to town. All students should endeavour to find out the procedure of their own authorities: they should discover whether the librarian is clerk to his committee or not, how many co-opted members there are on the committee, what sub-committees exist, how frequently the committee meets and whether or not it has delegated powers.

COUNTY LIBRARY COMMITTEES

Urban library committees are usually on an equal ~~footing with~~ ~~with~~ ~~the~~ ~~council~~ ~~of the~~ ~~council~~ of the council: they are ~~the~~ ~~the~~ ~~the~~ ~~council~~ ~~for~~ ~~public~~ ~~library~~ ~~policy~~ ~~and~~ ~~management~~. County library systems are,

however, much more closely aligned with education matters, and county library committees are sub-committees of the county education committees. This means that the county librarian is a subordinate of the county education officer, and that the county library sub-committee's decisions are subject to the approval of the county education committee. In some counties, however, a wide measure of delegated powers is allowed to the county library committee. Meetings are often quarterly as opposed to the normal monthly meeting of the urban library committee.

Local branch libraries in county systems often have their own committees. These have little real power, but the county library committee may sometimes delegate such powers as the appointment of junior assistants, selection of periodicals and hours of opening. Such local committees provide useful experience for the branch (or district) librarian, besides acting as watchdogs for the local residents.

GOVERNMENT OF NATIONAL, UNIVERSITY AND SPECIAL LIBRARIES

Committee government of libraries is now common to nearly all kinds of libraries in Great Britain, the U.S.A. and the Commonwealth. National libraries such as the British Museum are governed by a Board of Trustees, and so are university libraries and special libraries such as those of the National Book League and the Victoria and Albert Museum, to quote but two. In the United States, municipal public libraries are tax-supported (they refer to local rates as taxes) and their libraries are governed by Trustees, another name for bodies similar to our municipal public library committees in the United Kingdom.

SOME FURTHER READING

Brown, J D Manual of library economy. 6th ed.
revised by W. C Berwick Sayers 1949.
Chapters 1, 2 and 3.

Gray, Duncan Fundamentals of Librarianship. 1949.
Chapter 3.

Library Association. Small municipal libraries 2nd ed.
1934.
Chapter 1

Sayers, W. C Berwick. The Library committee. 2nd ed.
1948 *A.A.L.*

QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by "delegation of powers"? Illustrate
2. What do you consider is the ideal size for a library committee in a town of 60,000 inhabitants? How many members would it be desirable or possible to co-opt on to your committee?
3. Enumerate the items which may be expected to appear *regularly* on a library committee agenda. Give some indication of the business which would be discussed under each heading.
4. Write a brief essay on how your own library is governed.
5. Give some indication of the duties of Books, Staff and Accounts Sub-committees
6. Write a brief account of how county library systems are governed

Chapter III

LIBRARY STAFFS

As has been seen in the previous chapter, the library committee is the body which governs the library, being responsible for management and policy. The persons responsible for translating that policy into action are the librarian and the members of his staff. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that the success or otherwise of a library depends almost entirely on the quality of its staff.* The best-stocked library in the world cannot give anything like a 100 per cent. service to readers if it does not at the same time possess a keen, efficient and trained staff to exploit the stock to its fullest advantage. The constant aim of the staff, whether in lending, children's, reference or research work, should be to put the right book into the hands of the right reader. A great deal of tact is necessary in staff-public relations. Assistants should be careful not to go too far in recommending books to the public, but on the other hand they should ensure that no person requiring help in the choice of books, or in procuring information from books, should go without it. The good library assistant should therefore be something of a psychologist, able quickly to assess readers' individual personalities and requirements, and pos-

* Norman Lynravn, an Australian librarian, in his *Libraries in Australia*, published in 1948, wrote that "libraries consist of buildings, books and brains" and added "the most important of these is brains."

sessing the tact and bibliographical knowledge to deal with each reader according to his individual needs

Knowledge of library stock and the question of assistance to readers is a subject complete in itself, and one which the student will meet as part of the Library Association Registration examination. It is mentioned here only in passing, because this question of assistance, and how far the staff should go in rendering it, is one that has actually appeared as a question in the Entrance examination before now.

STAFF ORGANISATION AND DUTIES

Library staffs range in size from those of three or four assistants to those of hundreds. This factor of size, as well as the fact that conditions vary from library to library, makes it impossible to lay down too precisely the duties of the various grades of staff. For instance, the duties of a chief librarian in a large city will be very different from those of a chief in a small town. The former will be almost entirely occupied with decisions on internal policy, committee work and administrative work of a high order, the latter will have his committee and staff problems too, but will be able to take a personal part in all aspects of the work of his library—book selection, classification, cataloguing, display and routine.

It is possible, with some grades of staff, to lay down an approximation of their duties. *Deputy librarians*, for instance, usually exist only in large and medium-sized systems, and there is a fair measure of agreement as to what their duties should be. Briefly, these are to take the place of the chief librarian in his absence, to organise the general routine work of the library, to supervise the staff and to deal with all staff problems.

such as time-sheets, holidays, staff training, etc., and, in libraries of medium-size, to check classification and cataloguing.

The post of *superintendent of branches* does not usually exist except in large library systems with six or more branches. The duties of such a person are implicit in his title—he is, in fact, directly responsible to the chief librarian for the administration of the branch library system as a whole. He has authority over the branch librarians, but is an inferior officer to the deputy librarian. Next in line after the superintendent of branches are the *librarians-in-charge* of the various departments. In a medium-sized system, these will be confined to the Lending, Reference and Children's librarians, but in systems of a larger size there may be separate departments for such subjects as music, science, commerce, technology, local history and archives, and the librarians-in-charge of these will figure as departmental heads, each being fully responsible for the successful running and development of his department.

The position of *branch librarian* is sometimes just below that of librarian-in-charge of a department, although in some systems the two grades rank equal. A branch librarian is an extremely important member of the staff, but his scope and duties differ according to the size of the branch he controls. One fact, however, is inalienable—the branch librarian is the representative of the chief librarian in the area served by his branch, and upon his ability and personality the standing of the library system in that district depends. The branch librarian will be responsible for his own staff but, owing to the centralisation of accessioning, classifying and cataloguing which now

obtains in most library systems, he will have little real scope except in display work and personal service to readers. Although book selection will almost certainly be organised centrally, in the best library systems every effort is made to encourage and meet the branch librarian's book requirements.

All the library's technical and clerical work such as correspondence, book-ordering, accessioning, classifying and cataloguing will normally be carried out at the central library. In a large system, each of these processes demands a separate department, but in smaller systems cataloguing will be done by one or two senior assistants, accessioning and classification by another, while correspondence and general office work will be done by one or two typists or clerical assistants.

This brings us to the *junior assistants*, with whose work most readers of this book will be only too familiar. The work usually allotted to juniors is admittedly monotonous but it is certainly not valueless. On the contrary, juniors carry out some of the most important tasks in a library. The alleged monotony of a junior assistant's life is only a half-truth. If the junior is really interested in books and in people his tasks will not really be monotonous. Senior assistants and those responsible for organising routine work in the library can, however, make a notable contribution to staff harmony and interest if they ensure that the most monotonous routine tasks are fairly distributed and that juniors are not kept working too long on work of this kind.

Most chief librarians and those holding senior positions in libraries to-day began as juniors (except some of those trained at the University of London School of Librarianship) and there is little doubt

that it is extremely valuable for a chief or a senior to have had personal experience of the junior's work and problems.

STAFF INSTRUCTIONS

The two chief virtues, and indeed essentials, in library administration and procedure are accuracy and uniformity. One of the best ways to ensure uniformity in the work of the library is to start a file of staff instructions. In some libraries this is known as a staff manual. Such instructions will usually begin with the general, such as laying down the responsibility for the various departments and the duties of staff, and proceed to the particular, such as detailing the precise way in which books shall be marked and labelled. Here are some of the subjects on which guidance can be given:—

Charge of libraries; custody of keys, fire precautions; action to be taken in case of fire, disturbances, illness to readers, etc; readers' registration; overdues; inter-library loans, readers' recommendations; binding procedure; classification decisions, cataloguing styles, etc, etc.

The file of staff instructions should be read and initialled by all members of the staff. Some librarians (and a number of assistants) dislike the idea of staff instructions on the grounds that it savours of "head-hunting". But this is not the intention of the instructions, which should be formulated simply as a means towards the attainment of uniformity, that most desirable attribute of library procedure. Such a file provides a most convenient way of acquainting new assistants with the methods employed in the library. If it is kept in loose-leaf form it is a simple matter to

add new instructions as and when they become necessary. For some time now, staff instructions have been a feature of the organisation of many public libraries, and it is noteworthy that such a library as the Bodleian has found it necessary to maintain a staff manual in printed form for many years past.

ASSISTANTS . PROFESSIONAL AND CLERICAL

One of the most controversial topics in librarianship is that of the division of staff into the professional and the minor clerical. The progressive school of thought maintains that we are trying to train too many assistants and that there should be a distinct cleavage between such professional staff as branch librarians, departmental heads, readers' advisers, cataloguers, etc., and the counter assistants whose duties are confined to charging and discharging of books, writing tickets, overdues and reserved book post-cards. It is generally agreed that such a separation would be a good thing, always providing that there is a real bridge between the grades so that the ambitious counter assistant can become qualified and can step into a professional post when a vacancy occurs. Until a national library service comes into being, and until our library buildings are planned differently, it is unlikely that this ideal will be put into general practice in British public libraries, although it has been a *fait accompli* in American libraries for some time.

SALARIES, CONDITIONS AND HOURS OF WORK

Before World War II there was not much uniformity in the salaries, hours and working conditions of library assistants throughout the country, and the Association of Assistant Librarians prepared several

reports in an attempt to improve conditions generally. In 1946, however, the National Joint Council for Local Authorities' Administrative, Professional, Technical and Clerical Services produced its *Scheme of Conditions of Service*. This inaugurated the 38-hour week for local government officers, the salary scales of the General Division, the Clerical and Higher Clerical grades, and the Administrative, Professional and Technical grades, as well as many other conditions relating to sickness, holidays, bonuses, etc. Every assistant should look up this *Scheme* and its (by now) many amendments, for it behoves every local government officer to know thoroughly the conditions under which he is working. In rate-supported libraries assistants are therefore working a 38-hour week, the only variations between library and library being the particular time-sheet worked.

Service to the public must always be the prime consideration in the operation of a time-sheet, but it will make for a happy and contented staff if a time-sheet can be devised which avoids "split-duties" and which affords a reasonable rota of free Saturdays. The compilation of a time-sheet is by no means an easy task, and to appreciate the full difficulties the young student is advised to try working one out. Some of the important factors to be borne in mind are :

- (a) adequate staffing of all departments at all times so that queues can be avoided or at least cut down to a minimum;
- (b) allowance for staff meal-times ; as far as possible these should be kept the same for each assistant throughout the week, as nothing is more irksome than for an assistant to be allotted early

lunch one day, late the next, then back to early, and so on;

(c) observance of the 38-hour week, so that overtime is avoided.

A convenient way of setting down the time-sheet is by using a code, as follows .—

Name	Mon	Tues	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.
A. S. Brown	² A	H	² A	² A	H	D
J. E. Smith	H	¹ A	H	¹ A	¹ A	¹ A
H. McDonald	¹ A	¹ A	D	¹ A	H	¹ A
E. Griffiths	H	² A	² A	H	² A	² A
E. R. Jones	¹ A	H	¹ A	H	¹ A	¹ E
etc , etc.						

Legend :—

A = on duty all day

D = day off

E = evening off

H = half day off

¹ = early lunch and tea

² = late lunch and tea

QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING

Promotion in librarianship depends upon possession of the Library Association qualifications or the Diploma of the University of London School of Librarianship, and it behoves every ambitious assistant to study for these qualifications. For most assistants this has in the past meant studying in their spare time. Study was

done either privately, by attendance at part-time evening classes, through the correspondence courses run by the Association of Assistant Librarians or by a combination of these. Since World War II, certain improvements have taken place in education for librarianship, chiefly by the setting-up of the seven library schools at London, Manchester, Loughborough, Glasgow, Brighton, Leeds and Newcastle.

These schools, which have been formed within existing Technical Colleges, provide a year's course for the Library Association Registration examination, some of them also providing courses for parts of or the whole of the Final examination. Their earliest students were ex-servicemen and women who attended with a year's leave of absence from their authorities and a Government grant to help them to exist during the twelve months. The students now attending the library schools are chiefly library assistants aided by grants from their local education authorities. The ultimate ideal of library training is that assistants should work for one year in an approved library, pass the Library Association Entrance examination, and then proceed to a library school to prepare for the Registration examination. Until the library schools expand, however, this ideal cannot be attained for the great number of students who are at present sitting for the Library Association examinations.

Another improvement, long overdue, in library training, has been the establishment of the system of approved libraries, and the recommendation in the new Library Association syllabus that the training of junior staff should be closely supervised by their seniors.

INTERCHANGE OF ASSISTANTS

Experience in different types and sizes of libraries is of great value to any assistant, and experiments which have taken place in the interchange of assistants between libraries have generally proved very successful. Efforts to set up organised schemes of interchange, however, have always broken down owing to such administrative difficulties as the finding of suitable living accommodation. Individual interchanges are generally encouraged by chief librarians and local authorities, but it should be borne in mind that as public library systems are increasingly standardised in Great Britain to-day, the fullest benefit from an interchange is to be obtained when the participants are from different *types* of libraries.

STAFF MEETINGS AND ORGANISATIONS

In all but the smallest libraries, it is a good idea for the chief librarian to hold periodical staff meetings of his seniors for the purpose of acquainting them with developments and changes in administration, and of discussing with them any ideas which they may have for the betterment of the service. In some of our larger library systems such a practice is almost essential and has been a feature of their organisation for many years. As Mr W C Berwick Sayers points out in the 6th edition of Brown's *Manual of library economy*, some library staff meetings are properly constituted with regular agenda and minutes. For further details of staff meetings, see my own article on the subject in the *Library Association Record*, June, 1937. Staff organisations, with membership open to all members of the staff, are a feature in large libraries, but these are chiefly concerned with welfare and minor professional

problems rather than with the general improvement of the public service.

SOME FURTHER READING

Brown, J. D. *Manual of library economy* 6th ed
revised by W. G. Berwick Sayers 1949.
Chapters 6, 7 and 8

McColvin, L. R. *Library staffs.* 1939
Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 6

QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by a "staff manual"?
2. Write down your opinions on the subject of interchange of assistants from library to library.
3. Do you consider that regular meetings of the senior staff in a library are desirable? Give reasons for your opinion.
4. What are the chief provisions of the National Joint Council's *Scheme of Conditions of Service* regarding (a) hours of work, (b) bonuses for examination successes, and (c) annual holidays for General Division assistants over 21 years of age?
5. Write a brief account of the library schools established in the United Kingdom since World War II.
6. Draw up a week's time-sheet for a one-room branch library with a staff of 4. The library is open from 10 a.m. to 7.30 p.m. daily, but the staff commence work at 9 a.m. Do not exceed the 38-hour week and avoid "split" duties.

Chapter IV

LIBRARY DEPARTMENTS AND THEIR METHODS

THE student will have noticed that one section of the Entrance examination syllabus is headed "Method," and that this is defined as "the way in which books are acquired and made available." The syllabus further goes on to explain that this will include the ordering and receiving of books and other printed matter, their preparation for service, their stock recording, the admission and registration of readers and the issue of books to them. In this book, these aspects will be dealt with in two chapters, the first dealing with departmental routine, and the second with simple office routine, book ordering and preparation, and records and statistics.

It must be clearly understood that in such a small compass the merest mention only can be devoted to each aspect, and it is more than ever necessary for the student to undertake additional reading, details of which will be found at the end of the chapters. What is most called for in this syllabus, however, is observation of everyday librarianship, and the ability to express one's personal experience clearly in a brief essay. Questions are often set which give candidates the opportunity to describe routine methods in their own libraries, but when questions are couched in more general terms, care should be taken *not* to confine answers to personal experience but to describe

the various methods which are detailed in the text-books.

LENDING LIBRARY : REGISTRATION OF READERS

Most public libraries to-day have a simple method of registering readers by asking them to complete a standard 5 in by 3 in. form of application. Libraries differ, however, in their requirements from readers in the way of guarantees. Some libraries, although these are in the minority, allow all adult readers to register without the counter-signature of a guarantor, and these libraries will have, of course, one standard form of application. Other libraries, the majority, allow ratepayers (i.e., householders and their wives) to register upon their own signature, but lay down that non-ratepayers must obtain the counter-signature of a ratepayer as a guarantee. This involves the provision of two distinct application forms, which are usually of different colours.

In each case, when the completed application form is received, the name and address is checked with the defaulters' file, then with the current electoral rolls or, in the case of a person who has recently changed his address, verified by telephone consultation with the Rates Department of the local council. After checking, the reader's tickets are written out, and the application form is completed by writing the reader's name as a catchword along the top of the form, which is then filed with the others in alphabetical order. These processes, however, are normally done each morning for the day before, most libraries allowing new readers to take out books immediately upon presentation of the form of application. To make readers wait a day or two before they can actually borrow books is merely

to place a most irritating obstacle in their paths, and to revive that fetish of officialdom which most modern librarians have striven to abolish in their libraries

When writing an examination answer on the registration of readers do not forget to mention the arrangements which are made in most libraries for readers to have additional tickets for the borrowing of non-fiction books and music. Mention, too, that people who are *employed* in the town or district are usually allowed to register at the local library, even if they happen to reside outside the district. People who neither live nor work within the administrative area covered by the library are generally allowed to register upon payment of a subscription which is sometimes payable quarterly, sometimes annually. In many areas this does not arise, as some neighbouring authorities have accepted the principle of the inter-availability of tickets, whereby a resident of A may use his library ticket in the town of B, and *vice versa*. Most holiday resorts accept current library tickets from anywhere in the United Kingdom, some requesting a letter of introduction from the home librarian, others waiving this

I have already mentioned the defaulters' file, which has been found necessary in most libraries. This is usually merely an alphabetical index for quick reference, kept on 5 in by 3 in. cards, of the names and addresses of people who have, in the past, failed to return books. It is essential that all new applications should be checked with this file

Changes of address should be recorded by the registration department both on the readers' tickets and on the To assist in keeping the reasonably

up-to-date, tickets are usually made out to expire after two or three years. Renewals are dealt with differently in different libraries, but one of the best methods is to make out all tickets registered, say, during 1948 to expire on December 31st, 1951 (if three years is the normal period of availability), and to make out all these on tickets of one colour, perhaps green. Readers registered during 1949 would have tickets of a different colour, say, orange. This makes the spotting of expired tickets an easy matter for the staff. On January 1st, 1952, for instance, all green tickets still in use are due for renewal.

Before leaving the subject of readers' registration, a few remarks must be made on the number of extra tickets which may be allowed to each reader. The normal practice is to allow a general ticket, a non-fiction ticket and a music ticket, but some libraries allow each reader two or more general tickets. The question always to be considered is whether the book stock of the library is large enough to permit the issue of extra tickets to readers. Extra tickets to students and to all who specially ask for them for a specific purpose should be granted if possible, and extended periods of loan should also be allowed, subject, of course, to the books being returnable on demand. Public libraries, far from putting obstacles in the way of readers who want books, should go out of their way to meet genuine book needs.

ISSUE AND CHARGING METHODS

Since the commencement of public library systems, there has been a variety of issue methods or charging systems, including the indicator, the ledger method, the Newark system, the Browne method, the Dickman

system and now, the latest invention in America, the Shaw photo-charger. Of those historic methods, the ledger and the indicator, I shall say nothing, as information on them may be obtained, if required, from chapter 35 of Brown's *Manual of library economy*. The Newark system has been used chiefly in America, and a description of it can be found in L M Harrod's *Lending library methods*, chapter 7. The method most commonly in use in British libraries is the Browne system. In this method, each book has a book card which, when the book is issued, is placed inside the reader's ticket. The latter is in the form of a pocket and this, with the book card, forms the charge. On the book card is written the accession number of the book, its class number, author and title. Charges are usually arranged in order of the accession number, but in some libraries they are arranged in two sequences—fiction in alphabetical order of author and non-fiction in order of class number. The charges are filed in trays according to the date of issue.

My readers will not need telling that most public library buildings to-day are hopelessly small for the volume of work they are doing. Congestion is being reported from nearly every public library in the country, and at no point within the library is this congestion more noticeable than at the counter, which is invariably much too small. To prevent the formation of queues of people waiting to have their books discharged, some libraries have experimented with the "delayed discharge" of books. The best way of operating this is as follows: as soon as a queue begins to form, instead of discharging the reader's book in the normal way, which would involve him waiting at least a few seconds, hand him a card with a printed number

upon it. A counterfoil of the card containing the same number should be placed in the book. When time allows, all the "delays" may be discharged, and the counterfoil of the card is then put inside the reader's ticket and filed in number order on the exit counter. When the reader approaches the exit side to have his book charged, he hands in the card with the number upon it and the assistant finds his ticket from that number.

In smaller libraries, where queues occur, but less frequently than in larger systems, delayed discharge may be effected by merely asking him to proceed into the library, discharging the book later, filing his ticket in name order, and finding it by asking his name when he approaches the exit counter. Libraries which have experimented with delayed discharge report that it works satisfactorily, and that readers much appreciate the absence of yet another queue.

RENEWALS AND OVERDUES

In most libraries the period of issue is fourteen days, but readers are allowed to renew books for further periods, if they are not reserved by other readers. When a book is actually returned to the library with a request for renewal, the process is straightforward, the book's date label being merely restamped. When the request comes *via* the telephone or by post, and the book itself is not brought back to the library, the problem is different and some watertight system is needed. Usually the charge is left in the original date of issue and a slip is inserted to denote the renewal and the new date on which it is due.

To encourage the more frequent circulation of books, libraries usually charge fines on overdue books, the

normal fine being one penny per week or part of a week after the first 14 days. In some places a more punitive fine of 2d. or 3d. a week has been tried but this seems to make little or no difference to recalcitrant readers. An overdue postcard is usually sent when the book is two or three weeks overdue. A second notice (perhaps printed in a different colour) is sent a week or so later, while the third and final notice goes out a week or so after that. The third notice is often in the form of a cyclostyled letter, threatening to put the matter into the hands of the Town Clerk if the books are not immediately returned. If the reader remains impervious to these written appeals, a telephone call may be made, or a personal call made at the reader's house by a member of the library staff or by a janitor. Finally, a letter may be sent from the Town Clerk's Office threatening legal action if the book is not returned. It is rarely that this becomes necessary, but when there are many seriously overdue books in the issue, a court case, with the resultant publicity, often has a salutary effect upon the guilty readers. Many libraries have experimented with a "fines amnesty" week, and have let it be known that for a certain week no fines will be charged upon overdue books. The results have been mixed but, generally speaking, such weeks cannot be said to have been successful.

In the case of very popular books, librarians sometimes reduce the period of loan to 7 days instead of 14, or else double the fines rates on these particular books. Both measures have as their aim the prompter return of these books in the public interest, but if these methods are adopted the books must contain bold labels drawing the attention of readers to these special conditions of loan.

RESERVATION OF BOOKS

It is common practice in public libraries to-day to have a scheme whereby readers may for a small fee reserve any book which is in stock but not on the shelves at the time of asking. The fee, usually 2d. but sometimes 3d., is to cover the cost of printing and posting a card to inform the reader when the book is available. Reserved postcards, often on 5 in. by 3 in. cards, may be printed in the following suggested pro-forma:—

EASTBOURNE PUBLIC LIBRARIES

I write to inform you that the above book, which you reserved, is now waiting for you at the Public Library.

It will be kept for you until closing time on
..... day, .. of 195 .

Please bring this card with you and a reader's ticket or your previous book

K. G HARRISON,

Borough Librarian.

When a reader wishes to reserve a book, the assistant writes his name and address on the back of the post-card, and completes the dotted lines on the side shown above by inserting author and title of the book required. The card is then filed with the other reserve cards in author order, after the book has been "stopped" in the issue by having a "reserved" slip placed in the charge. When the book comes in, the

reserve card is extracted from the file and sent to the reader. Reserve cards should be consecutively numbered in the top right-hand corner so that reserves for the same book can be kept in strict order of sequence. Very often a reserves book is kept, details of each reserve being entered in it, each entry being stamped with the date when the reserve card was finally sent to the reader. This book forms a useful case-history book of reserves, but it is rarely that it is referred to afterwards, and some libraries have done away with it entirely.

OTHER SERVICES TO READERS

In the past few years many efforts have been made to give a really personal service to readers. The book reservation system, of course, is old-established, but in recent years we have seen the advent of the "reader's adviser," a rather unsatisfactory term applied to a senior assistant who is specially detailed to deal with readers' book wants and queries. In addition, many libraries now provide a good deal of printed guidance, ranging from pamphlets detailing library facilities to folders listing books on a particular subject or bulletins containing annotated lists of new books. In nearly all public libraries readers are encouraged to recommend books, while some libraries have commenced an index of readers' interests, which enables details of new books on certain subjects to be sent to the readers who are most interested in those subjects. Reading lists should be willingly compiled either for individual readers or for adult classes or societies and, as I have already mentioned, extra tickets and extended periods of loan should be granted where possible to serious library users.

THE CHILDREN'S LIBRARY

After the reference library, the most important department in the building is the children's library. Children become adults in a surprisingly short time and those who have enjoyed a good children's library service in their youth later become better and more intelligent users of the adult library. The children's library is usually a microcosm of the whole library as far as contents and routine are concerned. Normally occupying only one room, it contains fiction and non-fiction books for home reading arranged in a similar manner to those in the adult library, it has a quick-reference collection which helps to familiarise the children with the use of dictionaries, atlases and encyclopaedias; and it usually provides a selection of periodicals such as the *Children's Newspaper*, the *Boy's Own Paper* and *Collins' Magazine*.

A simplified version of the classification scheme is customary for the children's library, and the catalogue, too, is duly simplified. Registration and issue methods are on similar lines to the systems employed in the adult department, except that the counter-signature of the parent or teacher is usually required on the application form. Age-limits of admission vary. Some libraries admit only those children aged 9 to 15, others cater for very young children and have virtually no age-limits, allowing parents to borrow books for children from 4 to 7 years of age. An increasing number of libraries have abolished fines for overdue books in the children's library. Instead, offenders are warned and, if they persist in keeping books overdue, their tickets are suspended for a certain period.

The staff of the children's library, particularly the children's librarian, must be chosen with care. Special

qualities are needed—patience, tact, sincerity and sociability—as well as organising ability and a wide knowledge of child psychology and children's literature. The children's librarian is usually allowed a good deal of latitude in the running of her department. She normally does her own book selection, arranges displays, selects books for school libraries (if these are provided), visits schools to give talks, compiles printed or duplicated lists of new books, and generally she should endeavour to keep the children's library as bright and attractive a place as possible.

Extension work is often undertaken in the way of story hours and library lessons. Story hours are sometimes arranged as a winter syllabus—one a week held at the children's library throughout the winter months. Normally the story hour consists of the reading or telling of a story by the children's librarian or a member of the staff, but it should always be remembered that narrative is an art and that a poor story-teller can ruin a good story. The series need not be confined to stories: straight lectures or talks can be included, especially if they can be illustrated by lantern slides or by the epidiascope. One thing to remember is that where possible story hours should be related to the use of books—displays of relevant books or lists of recommended books should be a feature of every story hour.

Co-operation with schools and teachers should be a cardinal feature of the children's librarian's policy, and field work is frequently undertaken by visiting schools and addressing teachers and children on the work of the library. But a better idea is to arrange for classes to visit the library for a lesson conducted by the library staff. Such lessons should be of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

duration, the following being a suggested programme :

$\frac{1}{2}$ hour—brief talk on the library as a whole, who owns it, how it is governed, and where the money comes from. A few pointed remarks on the care of books can also be included here

$\frac{1}{2}$ hour—talk on how to use the catalogue and how to find books on the shelves, followed by

$\frac{1}{2}$ hour—practice of above. For this, it is a good idea to split the class into two halves, one half gathering round the catalogue for a more detailed explanation by a member of the staff, while sample catalogue cards representing books on the shelves are distributed to the other children who should find the books on the shelves from the information given. It is usually found that children are particularly quick at this after they have heard the explanatory talk. After changing round, there follows

$\frac{1}{2}$ hour—talk on how to use reference books, followed by

$\frac{1}{2}$ hour—“treasure hunt” with reference books. Cards are distributed, each containing a question and the name of the reference book which will supply the answer. Only one card must be written for each book, and members of the library staff must supervise carefully, but they will find that the majority of children grasp the idea very quickly and will find six or even more answers within the quarter hour. Finally,

$\frac{1}{2}$ hour—this, the final period, can be devoted to a conducted tour of the entire library. The

class should be divided into small units, each conducted by a member of the staff, and the units should be taken rapidly in turn through the adult lending department and the reference library, while it is sometimes a good idea to show them the workrooms and to demonstrate the processing of a new book.

The programme outlined above is only a suggested one, but it has worked well in several library systems. One criticism is that it tends to cram too much into one visit, but if the teacher prefers, the same programme can be divided into two or more shorter visits. In any case, such lessons need very careful preparation, and involve the presence of at least three members of the staff, who should each be responsible for a talk and should take part in the supervision of the demonstrations.

THE REFERENCE LIBRARY

I do not propose to say very much about the reference library here, as I shall be dealing with the set reference books in a later chapter. Here, the student must be content with a very brief description of reference facilities in public libraries, referring to the readings given at the end of this chapter for more detailed information.

Every library has its quick-reference section, ranging from a shelf or two of quick-reference books in the smallest permanent branch libraries to the great important reference libraries of such cities as Manchester, Birmingham and Liverpool. The peculiar character of reference work is, of course, that of answering questions or providing information from books for readers.) For this reason, the book stock,

staffing and routine methods of a reference library differ considerably from the other departments.

The medium-sized reference library will contain directories, encyclopædias, dictionaries, Government publications, bibliographies, atlases and maps, mathematical tables, recipes, etc., supported by the recognised reference books in each subject. There will almost certainly be a Local Collection, containing as much local material as it has been possible to collect, whether books, manuscripts, maps, pictures, illustrations, slides or the like. In the largest library systems, the reference library contains text-books on each subject as well as all the general reference books already mentioned. It may grow to such proportions that, as at Manchester, separate technical, commercial and foreign libraries are set up or, as at Edinburgh, separate departments (including reference and lending stock together) are formed for each main subject.

The staffing of a reference library is of the greatest importance. The work calls for a high degree of bibliographical knowledge, ingenuity and flexibility of mind, and the right psychological approach to readers. As a consequence, good reference librarians are extremely valuable members of a staff.

The stock of a reference department is rarely kept on the open shelves completely, owing to the fact that much of it is of occasional use only, and also because it may contain many books of a rare and irreplaceable nature. Only the best-known and most used reference books are therefore kept on the open shelves in a reference library, the remainder being readily accessible in book stores or in the "stack," as the book stores are known in large reference libraries. All the stock will be represented in the catalogue, but those books not

kept on the open shelves should have their catalogue entries plainly marked to the effect that they are available on application to the staff. Access to open-shelf books will be without formality, but a simple form is normally used when the reader requests a particular book from the stack. What the library staff should aim at here is speed in providing the book, as readers naturally find long waits irksome.

Reference libraries differ from other departments in their general layout and furnishings, the most modern being equipped with flat-topped study tables fitted with local lighting. Special furniture may also be provided in the way of map tables and filing cabinets for MSS, illustrations, cuttings, etc., while the largest reference libraries will have photostat equipment, a microfilm reader and study carrels for research students.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS

I close this chapter with a few remarks about the treatment of newspapers and periodicals in public libraries. All the older established libraries were planned with separate newsrooms, but in systems of more recent origin newsrooms have disappeared, and in place of them a selection of periodicals is displayed on tables in a spacious lending library. Unfortunately, however spacious they are planned, lending libraries have a habit of growing quicker than planners imagine and more than one lending library which was destined to keep its floor space free has found it necessary to introduce an increasing number of "island book-cases" which gradually crowd out the reading tables and their periodicals.

Librarians are still divided on the value of news and magazine rooms, but none can deny that they have

proved their worth during the paper shortages of World War II and the years following. Magazines, particularly technical ones, are of especial value for their up-to-date information on the subjects of which they treat. Comparatively speaking, the provision of newspapers and magazines does not involve the library staff in much work, apart from the checking of their receipt and, later, their sale to members of the public, or filing prior to binding. Incidentally, students should find out, if they do not already know, the sort of book that is used in their own libraries for the checking of the receipt of periodicals. This is a question which, if asked in the examination, should be answered with a pro-forma ruling of a suitable book.

As students may be asked questions about periodicals in the examination, I append a brief, classified list, at the same time drawing attention to the fact that the *Writers' and Artists' Year Book* contains a much more complete classified index of periodicals. Students should handle, if possible, all the periodicals mentioned below, and should get to recognise their format, scope and contents. In their own way, periodicals can be as important as the best reference books.

ART AND COLLECTING

Antique Collector	Connoisseur
Apollo	Museums Journal
Burlington Magazine	Studio

ECONOMICS AND POLITICS

Economist	✓ Spectator
Financial Times	Time and Tide
New Statesman & Nation	Truth

LITERARY

Bookseller	John o' London's
Chambers' Journal	Library Review

Contemporary Review	Publishers' Circular
Horizon	Listener
	Times Literary Supplement

MUSIC

Gramophone	Musical Times
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NATURAL HISTORY, COUNTRY LIFE AND GARDENING

Country Life	Field
Countryman	Homes and Gardens
Farmer's Weekly	Nature

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY

Baptist Times	Congregational Quarterly
British Weekly	Hibbert Journal
Catholic Times	Jewish Chronicle
Christian Herald	Literary Guide
Christian Science Monitor	Methodist Recorder
Church Times	Psychic Times

SPORTS, GAMES AND HOBBIES

C T C. Gazette	Sphere
Fishing Gazette	Tatler
Gibbons' Stamp Monthly	Woodworker
Queen	

TECHNICAL

Automobile Engineer	Machinist
Builder	Mechanics
Electrical Review	Model Engineer
Engineer	Practical Engineer
Engineering	Practical Mechanics
Gas World	Practical Wireless
Machinery	

TRAVEL

Blackwood's Magazine	Illustrated London News
Geographical Journal	National Geographic
Geographical Magazine	Magazine

SOME FURTHER READING

Brown, J. D. Manual of library economy 6th ed revised
by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1949
Chapters 24-28, 32-33

Doubleday, W. E. Manual of library routine
Chapters 7, 8, 10 and 11.

Gray, Duncan. Fundamentals of Librarianship. 1949
Chapters 6, 12, 13 and 14

Harrod, L. M. Lending library methods.
Chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9.

Sharp, H. A. Approach to librarianship
Chapter 14

QUESTIONS

1. What essential records must be kept in the registration of readers, and what are their particular purposes?
2. State, with reasons, to what types of readers you would be prepared to give special privileges
3. Describe briefly the methods adopted in your library for the reservation of books
4. Describe a suitable charging system for the type of library in which you work.
5. Set out briefly the sequence of action you would take if you were allowed to institute your own system of dealing with overdues. Indicate the time you would allow between each stage
6. Describe a typical day's work in the type of library in which you are employed.

Chapter V

BOOK ORDERING, PREPARATION AND STOCK RECORDING

In this chapter I shall cover that part of the syllabus which demands a knowledge of book ordering, the preparation of books from their receipt to their appearance on the shelves, and their stock recording. In addition, I shall include sections on a few other relevant matters, such as statistics, the care of books and office routine. Before beginning the chapter proper it is not inappropriate, I feel, to include a few remarks upon the selection of books.

BOOK SELECTION

Book selection is one of the most important jobs in a library and those responsible for it should have a wide background knowledge of the history of literature, combined with an alert sense of present-day books and authors, and the necessary experience to assess public demand in advance. In small and medium-sized systems, book selection is normally carried out by the chief librarian personally, although, if he is wise, he will welcome suggestions from his seniors or his departmental heads. In large systems, book selection is usually in the hands of a buyer, who collects requirements from departments, interviews book salesmen and is generally in charge of the book order department.

It is never too early to get to know the recognised bibliographical and periodical aids to book selection.

Aids to current book selection appear in such periodicals as *The Times Literary Supplement*, the *Listener*, the *New Statesman and Nation*, the *Spectator*, *Time and Tide*, the *Observer*, the *Sunday Times*, the *Daily Telegraph*, and the *Manchester Guardian*, all of which contain regular reviews of current general literature. The book selector also uses such special periodicals as *Nature*, which reviews scientific books, the *Musical Times*, which pays special attention to books on music, the *Connoisseur*, which reviews art books, *Engineering*, which covers technical books, and many others on other subjects. Finally, there are such aids as the *Bookseller* and the *Publishers' Circular*, both of which appear weekly and carry lists of books published in the previous week and lists of forthcoming books. A useful reminder list is *Books of the Month*, which reviews and lists books issued during the previous month, while *British Book News*, although primarily intended for overseas readers, is also a useful check list. Bibliographical aids which all students should know are *Whitaker's Cumulative Book List* and the *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature*. The latter is still useful although quite out-of-date. Since January 1st, 1950, the *British National Bibliography* has appeared weekly and is proving a very useful aid to book selection.

BOOK ORDERING

Some purists in the profession have deplored the fact that librarians have, on the whole, failed to evolve a systematic method of book selection. There is no need for such disparagement, for book selection does not lend itself to rigid systematisation. In book ordering, however, system is not only desirable but absolutely necessary. Methods differ from library to

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library, but the general method of recording book orders is by making out a card or slip for every book ordered and filing them in alphabetical order. It is a good idea to have these cards or slips in printed form, so that they may subsequently be used as accession records or as the main catalogue entries. An example of such a card is shown herewith :—

Author	Acc. No
Title
Publisher	Price
Ord from	Date
Date supplied .. .	Allocation

Reader's recommendations are encouraged in most libraries and normally a 5 in by 3 in printed card is used for these. A specimen ruling is as follows —

READER'S RECOMMENDATION

Author	
Title	
Publisher	Price
Reader's Name	
Address	
..	Date

The reverse of this reader's recommendation form may be printed as follows :—

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

Submitted to Committee
Approved / Rejected / Buy second-hand /
Obtain through Regional Library System
Added

The books having been ordered, and the cards or slips having been prepared and filed, when the books arrive the cards are extracted from the file and put into use as accession records. A reader's recommendation form usually remains with the book throughout its processes, so that when the book is ready for issue, a postcard may be sent to the reader informing him that it is now in stock and is being reserved for him for a few days.

BOOK PREPARATION

A very common examination question is that which asks the candidate to describe the processes through which a book goes between its arrival from the bookseller and its appearance on the shelves. This should be an easy question for assistants who have worked in a library for over twelve months and have kept their eyes open, but experience has shown that, on the whole, this question is badly done. Let us, therefore, tabulate the stages of book preparation, and then describe them in detail. Briefly, the stages are.—

Check of book with invoice
Rough collation (i.e., physical check of book)

Classification

Accessioning

Cataloguing

Stamping and labelling

Lettering on spine

Final check of all processes before shelving.

As the new books are unpacked, they are assembled for comparison with the invoice which the bookseller may either have included with the consignment or have sent under separate cover. Care must be taken to see that the correct prices have been charged, that the correct discount has been allowed, and the invoice must be checked for addition. Many libraries possess a rubber "process-stamp" which is imprinted on the back of the title-pages of books as they are added, and which has spaces for filling in the vendor's name, price, date of addition, etc. These details may either be filled in by the person checking the invoice or they may be completed at a later stage by the accessioner or accessions department. The process-stamp, if used, should be kept as small and as neat as possible, a sample ruling being as follows —

HOVE PUBLIC LIBRARIES			
Vdr	S	Acc No	53612
Price	U/R	Cat	J S
Date	6/50	Lab	M R.
Dept	L	Let	E H
Class	820.9	Ch	R.L.

As will be seen from the above, it is desirable to use a simple code to fill in details of vendor and price. Initial letters of vendors' names will suffice for the former, while for the price, any ten-letter word will be suitable as a code, so long as the same letter does not

occur twice. The example used is 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 PLAYGROUND and U/R tells us that the book cost 8s. 6d. The other spaces in the process-stamp are filled in stage by stage, the spaces for cataloguing, labelling, lettering and checking being completed with the initials of the various assistants who perform these processes.

At the same time as the book is unpacked and checked with the invoice, a rough check is carried out to make sure that the book has no physical imperfections. It sometimes happens that the book has been damaged in transit, or that, owing to binder's errors, a section of the book is missing or has been duplicated. In the event of any such imperfections, the book may be returned to the bookseller, who will supply a perfect copy in its place. If he is unable to replace it, he will send a credit note, enabling the amount to be deducted from the full invoice before payment.

After these preliminaries the book (if non-fiction) will proceed to the classifier's desk or shelves for classification, and then it will be accessioned. Fiction will proceed direct to the accessions department immediately after being checked with the invoice. (Here it should be mentioned that some libraries no longer accession fiction books.) The various methods of accessioning will be described more fully later in this chapter under the paragraph headed "Stock recording." Following accessioning, the book proceeds to the cataloguer. After this, it is stamped and labelled.

and the appropriate lettering is written on the spine, either with the electric stylus or, preferably, with the aid of a gold tooling set which gives greater permanence to the lettering. It is not generally realised by junior assistants that lettering is one of the most important jobs in library routine. If the lettering on the spine of a book is indecipherable, the last link in the chain of book-finding destroys the efficacy of the whole system. The whole object of classification and cataloguing, on which processes a formidable amount of money and time is spent in every library system, is to enable books to be grouped into the most useful order and to enable them to be found easily. If the lettering system is inefficient, then the whole book-finding system is inefficient and all the work that has gone into classification and cataloguing is wasted.

Before the book finally goes on the shelves, a final check takes place. This is often done by a senior assistant, who checks every process to make sure that everything has been done and that all is in order.

STOCK RECORDING

The object of stock recording, or accessioning, is to show the history of any particular book from the time of its arrival in the library to the time of its withdrawal, including such information as publisher, vendor, price, class number and accession (or identification) number. Such stock records are usually called *accessions registers* and they may be in ledger, loose-leaf ledger, card or slip form. The information included in an accessions register usually comprises such details as accession number, author, short title, publisher, date of publication, edition, price, vendor, class number, date of

receipt and allocation (i.e., department or branch to which the book is allocated).

The ledger form of accessioning is no longer in favour owing to its inflexibility, although many ledger accession registers still exist in older libraries. The loose-leaf ledger form is an improvement as it enables pages to be rewritten when congested with replacements and withdrawals. But even this method is not so flexible as the use of cards or slips. One card or slip should be made out for each book added to stock, the cards or slips then being filed either in accession number order, class number order or author order. It is advisable that the arrangement should be the same as that in which the charges in the issue are arranged. When the book is finally withdrawn the card or slip can be destroyed and the vacant accession number used again for a new book. Many libraries maintain records of withdrawn books, but there is no justification for this.

STOCKTAKING

This is one of the most formidable tasks to be undertaken by the library staff, involving a physical check of each book in stock according to the accession records. Some authorities close their libraries for the purpose of stocktaking, but such interference with a public service is difficult to justify. An alternative to stocktaking is to have a census of the books in the library. This count, deducted from the total number of books according to the stock records, will show the *number* of books missing at the time of the check but will not, of course, give any information as to the actual titles. For most libraries the days of annual stock-taking are over, owing to shortage of staff, but a

useful idea is to compromise by having a stocktaking every five years and a simple census every year.

Methods of stocktaking naturally vary according to the kind of stock records which different libraries use. Where a library system uses a running accession number for each book, and arranges its charges in the issue according to accession number, it is a good plan to have large cards with numbers 1 to 1,000 printed upon them. If the library has 40,000 books in stock, 40 of these cards will be needed. The shelves are then checked, and each book on the shelves has its accession number neatly crossed out on the cards. Issue trays are then dealt with, the accession number of each book-caid in the issue being crossed out. In stocktaking, care must be taken to ensure that no book actually present is recorded as missing, and for this reason books at the binders, books awaiting repair and binding, books waiting for individual readers, and those in book store must all be carefully checked and recorded. When the librarian is satisfied that all books have been checked, the cards will tell him that the accession numbers not crossed out represent missing books. The authors and titles of these books can then be ascertained by reference to the accessions register.

Another method of stocktaking is to use the actual accessions register as a check, particularly if this is in the flexible form of cards or slips. The cards, say, in each drawer, are checked with shelves, issue, store, binding, etc., and as each book is recorded as present the card can be placed back into the drawer, perhaps being date-stamped as an indication that the book was checked on that date. Cards for books which cannot immediately be found should be kept in a separate sequence for further checking. When the

stocktaking is completed, those cards still left in the separate sequence represent the missing books

These are only two methods. There are many more, in fact, each library will have to work out its own method of stocktaking according to the particular circumstances of its stock and records

STATISTICS

Every assistant should have an outline knowledge of the various statistics kept by his library, and the reason for their maintenance. The records most usually kept are as follows:—

- (a) statistics of stock—total stock, stock in each department, number of books in each class;
- (b) issues of books in each class in each department and branch;
- (c) number of registered readers and tickets in force;
- (d) numbers of inter-library loans

The reason for keeping such statistics is that, rightly or wrongly, they are used as a yardstick by library committees in assessing the use made of the library service by the public, and they are included in the librarian's monthly and annual reports to his committee. There has been a recent tendency on the part of some librarians to get away from the practice of regularly submitting such figures to their committees, and instead to take a survey of a cross-section of the library's work for use as the basis of a progress report. Statistics are, however, too deeply ingrained into the minds of committee members to be entirely dispensed with, and the librarian's monthly report is best when it presents brief statistics *combined* with brief extracts from a survey of reading.

For the librarian's annual report, the Library

Association has prepared a recommended form for the presentation of statistics. This standard form is now being used by most librarians in their annual reports, but the student should refer to the skeleton outline which was printed in the *Library Association Record* of January, 1948.

BINDING ROUTINE

Some libraries, the larger systems, still maintain home binderies, in which all or part of the library stock is rebound, reinforced or repaired as occasion arises. The difficulties of obtaining materials during and since World War II has resulted in the closure of some home binderies, or at least a curtailment of their activities from rebinding to simple reinforcing and mending of books. Most libraries to-day have their rebinding done by the recognised and well-known contractors. The clerical work connected with binding consignments is easily enough organised and carried out, but accuracy is of the greatest importance, especially in the instructions given to the contractor as to the style and lettering of each book.

Methods differ, but not in essential. It is the practice in some libraries to type in duplicate the list of books to be rebound, one copy of the list going to the binders to serve as a check list for the receipt, despatch and invoicing of the books, the other being retained by the library to serve as a check list on the return of the books. An alternative practice is to have a binding order book with counterfoils so that particulars of each book can be entered, and a carbon copy taken. The original is sent with the books to the binders, and is eventually returned with their invoice, the carbon copy remaining in the book as a permanent record. Which-

ever method is used, the details required in the columns are simply as follows —

Date sent	Author and title in form required for lettering on spine	Class No	Binding style	Date returned
4.1.1950	Woolf To the lighthouse	F	Library cloth	6.3.50
„	Harvey Oxford companion to English literature	R 820 .9	½ niger.	„

CARE OF BOOKS

While on the subject of binding, a few words may perhaps be added on the care of books. On page 173 of his *Manual of book classification and display*, Dr E. A. Savage has some very pointed remarks and a very telling anecdote to relate on this subject. He is quite right in maintaining that standards of book-handling and book-care have deteriorated very much in the last ten or twenty years, and that many library staffs are as much to blame as the public—more so, really, because they should know better. Because books belong to the community, there is no reason why they should be treated with the vandalism described by Dr Savage. There is room for a very great improvement in the handling and care of books by junior assistants. Neither are senior assistants blameless. Books requiring minor repairs pile up most rapidly in busy libraries these days, and too often the job of effecting such repairs as tipping-in loose leaves and plates, repairing torn pages and removing marks and stains is given to the nearest junior assistant without any explanation.

as to the neatest methods of repair. Perhaps when those who now read this book become senior assistants themselves, they will remember these remarks and will effect reforms with such energy that the care of books will re-assume its rightful place as a most important aspect of librarianship.

SIMPLE OFFICE ROUTINE

I am concluding this chapter with a short description of simple office routine for libraries, as questions have in the past been asked on this subject, and few assistants have the opportunity to become acquainted with practical office work. In the smallest library, one member of the staff is usually earmarked for clerical work, perhaps in addition to normal library duties ; in larger systems one, two or more clerical assistants will be needed, while in the largest libraries a separate department is necessary to keep up with office and administrative work. The chief clerical duties involved in office work are.—

- (a) typing and filing of correspondence;
- (b) typing and duplicating of committee reports, book lists, etc.;
- (c) maintenance of postage books, petty cash accounts, order books, etc.;
- (d) check of goods with invoices, check of invoices and discounts, preparation of invoices for committee, and maintenance of expenditure books ;
- (e) maintenance of receipt books, fine-rolls (if used) and paying-in of cash receipts ;
- (f) frequent check of stationery and re-ordering of essential supplies

It is impossible, and indeed unnecessary, to describe these duties in detail within the small scope of this

book, but a few general remarks may prove helpful. The typing and filing of correspondence is an important and responsible duty. The librarian should insist on a fixed style of typing, so that all correspondence leaving his library conforms to a neat and legible pattern. With every outgoing letter there should be a carbon copy, and this should be filed with the letter (if any) to which it is a reply. The best method of filing papers is to use manila folders in a vertical file. Several methods of arranging the folders are available, and the librarian will no doubt choose that which is most convenient for his own use. Among these various methods are —

- (a) alphabetical arrangement by correspondent (*this has the disadvantage of separating papers relating to the same subject, and a subject-index would be necessary*);
- (b) alphabetical arrangement by subject (*here an index of correspondents is desirable*);
- (c) a mixture of (a) and (b) above (*this results in frequent cross-classification, but is satisfactory for small libraries*);
- (d) systematic arrangement according to any published scheme for arranging library papers, e.g. J. D. Stewart's *A Tabulation of Librarianship*, or see 020-029 in the Dewey Decimal classification scheme (*this is perhaps the best method, but an index of correspondents should be maintained*)

One other aspect of clerical work appears to confuse young students and that is the use of an order book. Local authorities usually have a standardised type of order book for use in all departments, the most usual kind providing for the recording of orders in triplicate. The first copy (the original) is sent to the vendor, the second copy is attached to the invoice (after the goods

BOOK ORDERING, PREPARATION AND STOCK RECORDING 81

have arrived) and sent to the Treasurer's department, while the third copy remains in the order book as a record.

If, as is often the case in dealing with booksellers, it has been found necessary to return some unwanted books, the bookseller will send a *credit note*. This is an invoice in reverse—it acts as proof that the goods have been returned and enables the librarian to deduct the amount from the original invoice, thus arriving at a correct total for the goods actually supplied and kept.

SOME FURTHER READING

Brown, J D Manual of library economy 6th ed.
revised by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1949
Chapters 5 and 14, also paras 350-7

Gray, Duncan Fundamentals of Librarianship 1949
Chapters 7, 10 and 11.

QUESTIONS

- 1 Define, with brief descriptions, (a) an order book, (b) a credit note, (c) process stamp
- 2 Draw a pro-forma issue statistics sheet for a lending library
3. Describe any system known to you for filing correspondence and papers in a public library.
- 4 Describe the system of accessioning in use in your library. In addition, make brief mention of any alternative system known to you
- 5 What is a home bindery, a vertical file, a book census?
6. Name six newspapers and periodicals which serve as useful general aids to book selection.

Chapter VI

ELEMENTARY CATALOGUING

IN cataloguing, says the syllabus, candidates will be expected to understand the principles governing the use and purpose of author and subject catalogues, the differences between main and added entries, the difference between *see* and *see also* references, and the meaning of *description*. Let it be understood here and now that the kernel of these requirements lies in the student's understanding of the scope and use of the varieties of author and subject catalogues. Consequently, the bulk of this chapter will be devoted to a description of the dictionary and classified types of catalogue.

The student will first be expected to know the purpose of a library catalogue, which may briefly be said to be :—

- (a) to show what books the library possesses by a certain author.
- (b) to show the stock of the library on a certain subject.
- (c) to show whether the library has a book bearing a certain title.
- (d) to show, on each entry, such bibliographical information as date of publication, number of edition, whether the book is illustrated or contains maps, its size and its pagination. The entry will also contain the accession number

of the book, and a reference to its location, i.e. its class number.

The chief kinds of library catalogues are the author catalogue, the dictionary catalogue, the classified catalogue and the alphabetical-classed catalogue. The first and last of these are of lesser importance than the other two, upon which I shall concentrate.

DEFINITIONS

I have already in this chapter used some cataloguing terms which may appear strange to students. Cataloguing is a subject which necessitates students possessing a precise understanding of bibliographical terms and it is very essential that these should be defined briefly yet exactly. Most text-books on cataloguing (with the honoured exception of the *Anglo-American Joint Cataloguing Code*) include lists of definitions at the *end*, almost as an afterthought. I feel that definitions are so vitally important for the cataloguing student to know that they should appear at the *beginning* of a chapter or book on the subject. Furthermore, they should be read, understood and mastered before the student proceeds with the rest of the chapter. The list of definitions which follows is brief and has been kept to a minimum. Longer and more comprehensive lists may be found in the *Anglo-American Joint Code* and in Henry A. Sharp's excellent *Cataloguing: a text-book for use in libraries*.

Added entry: a secondary entry, usually under editor, title, subjects, etc. It is usually much less complete than the main entry (*q.v.*)

Analytical entry: entry of some *part* of a book or of some article or play in a collection, including an indication of the book containing it. Analyticals may be made under authors, subjects or titles.

Annotation · a brief, descriptive note of a book's contents written by the cataloguer and included at the end of the entry.

Author entry : an entry of a book under its author's name, which may consist of a personal name, a corporate (q.v.) name, initials or a pseudonym

Caption : the heading printed at the beginning of a chapter, section or page

Catalogue · a list of books in a library, arranged according to some definite plan. It differs from a bibliography, which is a list of books not confined to those in any one collection.

Central cataloguing . strictly speaking, this refers to the cataloguing of all books in a library system at one central point, i.e. the books are not catalogued at the individual branches to which they are allocated. The term has, however, lately been used in the sense of co-operative cataloguing (q.v.)

Classified catalogue · a catalogue arranged in classified order of subjects. A classified catalogue in a library is usually arranged according to the classification scheme in use in the library

Collation · that part of the description which states the number of volumes, pages, illustrations, maps, etc., constituting the book

Colophon : a statement at the end of a book giving the author's name, title, printer, publisher, date and place of printing and publisher's or printer's device. In modern books the colophon omits many of the above details

Compound name · a name consisting of two or more proper names joined either by a hyphen, a conjunction or a preposition

Co-operative cataloguing . refers to the cataloguing of books and the distribution of cards or slips by a central agency, e.g. the Library of Congress in the U.S.A and British National Bibliography in the U.K

Corporate entry · entry under names of governments, institutions or societies for books published in their name or by their authority

Dictionary catalogue a catalogue containing entries under authors, subjects and titles of books catalogued. All these entries, with cross-references in addition, are arranged in one alphabetical sequence, like a dictionary

Editor · one who prepares for publication a work by another writer, or a collection of material by several other writers.

Edition · all the copies of a book issued at one time and printed from the same set of types

Entry the record of a book in a catalogue. Types of entry include main entry, added entry, title entry, analytical entry, series entry.

Format the size and shape of a book

Half-title · the short title of a book, printed without the author's name, usually on the leaf preceding the title-page.

Heading the word by which the alphabetical place of an entry in a catalogue is determined. It may be the author's name, the subject or the first word (not an article) of the title.

Imprint · the statement usually found at the foot of a title-page including the publisher's name, place and date of publication.

Joint-author · one of two or more authors who have collaborated to write a book

Main entry · the principal entry for a book. In a dictionary catalogue this is the author entry. The main entry contains the fullest description of the book.

Pagination that part of the collation giving the number of pages in a book

Pseudonym · an assumed name under which an author writes.

Recto · the right-hand page of an open book

Reference a direction from one heading to another.

Series · books related to each other, being issued by the publisher in a uniform style under a collective series title.

Series entry · an entry in the catalogue under the name of a series, showing the names of the books in the series possessed by the library

Sobriquet. a nickname

Subject entry. an entry under the name of the specific subject treated by the book

Title-page the page at the beginning of a book detailing the author's name, the full title of the book, and the imprint.

Tracings indications on the main entry showing what added entries and references exist in the catalogue for the book

Union catalogue. a catalogue, showing location, of all the books in a library system with branches, or of all the books in the libraries of an organised area, e.g. the London Union Catalogue, which contains entries for all the books in London public libraries.

Verso. the left-hand page of an open book.

Volume a book distinct from other books by reason of having its own title-page and pagination.

TYPES OF CATALOGUE

The three types of catalogue with which students should be cognisant are the printed, the card and the sheaf types. At one time, about the beginning of the century, there was a vogue for producing complete printed catalogues of libraries, but the disadvantages of these soon became apparent. First, they were laborious and costly to produce and secondly, they were out of date before they appeared, and could only be kept up to date by frequent supplements. Most libraries to-day keep an up-to-date catalogue of either the card or sheaf type, and draw attention to recent additions or to books on special subjects by the issue of quarterly bulletins, booklets or folders.

Both the card and the sheaf catalogues are flexible, allowing of insertions indefinitely. Both are quite expensive to maintain, being heavy not only on stationery but also on the necessary furnishings, card catalogue cabinets being particularly dear. Of the

two, perhaps the sheaf type is more convenient and more popular with the public, as a person wishing to consult it may withdraw the particular binder from its pigeon-hole and take it to a table, sit down and consult it in comfort. Card catalogue drawers are not intended to be parted from the cabinet and a person consulting a card catalogue is forced to stand. Another disadvantage of the card catalogue is that the consultant masks about ten or fifteen other drawers while he is consulting his particular tray, a drawback which need not apply to the sheaf catalogue.

THE DICTIONARY CATALOGUE

This has been the most popular form of library catalogue for general public libraries, and it has been particularly favoured in America. It is called a dictionary catalogue because the entries, consisting of author entries, subject entries, cross-references and title entries, are arranged in one alphabetical sequence from A to Z. In a dictionary catalogue the main entry for all books (except anonymous ones) is the author entry. Added entries usually appear under the subject or subjects treated by the book, and the title if the subject is not implicit in the title. Two examples, in abbreviated catalogue entry form, may suffice to demonstrate at this stage the use and purpose of the dictionary catalogue.

MAIN ENTRY (i.e. Author Entry)

Bowle, James. 940
 The Unity of European history, by
 James Bowle 1948

ADDED ENTRY (in this case Subject Entry)

Europe. History. 940
 Bowle, James The Unity of European
 history. 1948.

The above is an example of a book which does not require a title entry, the subject being quite apparent from the title. Below, I give an example of an imaginary title treating of several subjects and requiring a title entry in addition. It will be noted that there is no limit to the number of subject entries which may be made.

MAIN ENTRY

Andrews, James 704
 Four ways : essays on architecture,
 sculpture, painting and engraving by
 James Andrews 1949.

ADDED ENTRY (Subject)

Architecture 704
 Andrews, James. Four ways : essays
 on architecture, sculpture, painting
 and engraving. 1949.

ADDED ENTRY (Subject)

Sculpture. 704
 Andrews, James. Four ways essays
 on architecture, sculpture, painting
 and engraving. 1949.

ADDED ENTRY (Subject)

Painting and Painters 704
 Andrews, James Four ways. essays
 on architecture, sculpture, painting
 and engraving 1949.

ADDED ENTRY (Subject)

Engraving. 704
 Andrews, James Four ways. essays
 on architecture, sculpture, painting
 and engraving. 1949.

ADDED ENTRY (Title)

Four ways : essays on architecture, 704
 sculpture, painting and engraving, by
 James Andrews 1949.

The popularity of the dictionary catalogue for general public libraries is due to the fact that its

arrangement and use is easily explained to readers. The simple requirements of general readers are usually for books by a certain author, books on a certain subject, or a book with a certain title, and it is easy to demonstrate to readers that in the dictionary catalogue all these entries are sorted into one alphabetical arrangement.

Unfortunately, the dictionary catalogue does not meet with the full approval of many English librarians. This is because the use of subject headings in this form can admittedly lead to confusion and chaos in the hands of inexpert cataloguers. An inexorable rule of dictionary cataloguing is that subject entries for books must be made under the name of the *specific* subject treated, and that references must always be made from the *general* to the *specific* and not vice-versa. Mrs Steuart Erskine's excellent book *The Bay of Naples* would, for instance, be entered under NAPLES and not under ITALY. But there would have to be a cross-reference from ITALY to NAPLES and to all other towns or parts of the country treated in books possessed by the library. For example, in a small library catalogue one might find such a reference as the following —

ITALY.

See also under LOMBARDY ; MILAN ,
NAPLES , ROME , TURIN ; UMBRIA

Although in actual practice it is better to have such a reference in the following form :—

ITALY

See also under names of individual provinces and cities, e.g. LOMBARDY, NAPLES, ROME, etc.

It is owing to the difficulties which arise from subject entries and cross-references that confusion can occur

in dictionary catalogues, and these difficulties have prejudiced many librarians against the form.

The answer to these difficulties is to provide the cataloguer with a set list of subject-headings and references. American librarians discovered this a very long time ago, and there are in existence at least three printed lists of subject-headings for use in dictionary catalogues, viz. Minnie E. Sears' *List of subject headings for small libraries*, the A.L.A. *List of subject headings for use in a dictionary catalog*, and the Library of Congress *Subject headings used in the dictionary catalogs of the Library of Congress*.

Libraries using the dictionary catalogue may compile their own lists, using the above as bases and making due allowances for differences between American and English terms. The lists should preferably be made out on interleaved pages, so that additions can be made when new subjects arise. The obvious advantages of a list of subject-headings for the cataloguer's desk are that it saves time and many excursions to the actual catalogue, and that it makes for uniformity, so that a succession of cataloguers can, if necessary, be employed without affecting the uniformity and accuracy of the catalogue as far as subject-headings are concerned.

THE CLASSIFIED CATALOGUE

The classified catalogue has been much more popular in English libraries than in American ones. Undoubtedly it is easier for cataloguers to keep in good order, but it is a difficult type of catalogue to explain to the general reader. The writer's opinion on the vexed question of the dictionary versus the classified type of catalogue is that for small and medium-sized

public libraries catering for the general reader, the dictionary catalogue is better because it is easier for the public to understand and use. For larger public libraries, and for all libraries which are pre-eminently used by more serious readers, the classified catalogue with author and subject indexes is undoubtedly to be preferred.

But what is a classified catalogue? It is one in which the entries are arranged in the same order as the classification scheme in use or, if you like, according to the order in which the books are arranged on the shelves. The heading, or arranging factor, of each entry is not the author, or the name of the subject, as in the dictionary catalogue, but the class-number itself.

This mode of arrangement means, of course, that it is impossible for anyone to understand it unless they are quite familiar with the classification scheme in use. To augment the main classified catalogue therefore, author and subject indexes are necessary and these, particularly the author index, are more heavily used than the main catalogue. The main entry, that is the one in the main catalogue, is, however, generally the most complete entry. The author index entry usually contains little more than the author's name, the title of the book, the date of the book and its class-number, while the subject index entry contains merely the name of the subject with a straight reference to the class-number. Examples of the various entries in a classified catalogue are as follows:—

MAIN ENTRY.

940

Bowle, James The Unity of European history, by James Bowle 1948.

AUTHOR INDEX ENTRY.

Bowle, James 940
 The Unity of European history, by
 James Bowle. 1948.

SUBJECT INDEX ENTRY

Europe—History. 940

An advantage of the classified catalogue is that all related subjects appear together, which means that the library's stock on gardening, for instance, is easily ascertained. With the dictionary catalogue a search must be made under a variety of headings to ascertain the full resources of the library on a subject generally. Thus, in giving a quick survey of the classified stock, or for ease in compiling subject book lists, the classified catalogue has the advantage over the dictionary form

Whichever form of catalogue is used by a library, two things are essential.—

- (a) accurate and uniform cataloguing by trained cataloguers;
- (b) the need for adequate written guides giving directions to the public on how to use the catalogue

With regard to (b) above, students should be prepared to answer an examination question on this, and as they may be asked to draft a brief guide to the use of the catalogue they should study those in use in their own and neighbouring libraries.

MAIN AND ADDED ENTRIES

The difference between main and added entries should already be apparent to the discerning student from what has already been explained in this chapter. But as this is a specific part of the syllabus it is perhaps as well to explain main and added entries briefly in this separate section.

In a dictionary catalogue the main entry is generally, though not always, the author entry. Added entries are made under subjects and sometimes under title, but it **should** be noted that, for anonymously written books, the title entry will be the main entry. In a classified catalogue the main entry is the subject entry, with the class-number as the arrangement factor. The author index entry becomes the added entry, while other added entries may appear in the form of references and analytical entries.

REFERENCES

No difficulty should be experienced with that part of the syllabus relating to the difference between *see* and *see also* references. This difference can be explained quite briefly, and with the aid of a couple of examples. A *see* reference is one which is made from a heading under which there are no other entries to a heading which contains other entries. When it is desired to refer from a heading which contains other entries to another heading then a *see also* reference is used, e.g.

FRANCE.

See also names of provinces, e.g. BRITTANY, NORMANDY, etc., and names of individual cities and towns, e.g. CALAIS, NANCY, PARIS, etc.

A *see also* reference would be used here because (presumably) there are already many other entries under the heading **FRANCE** and you are asking the enquirer to see *also* under other headings which have something to do with parts of France. Examples of *see* references are as follows —

ORNITHOLOGY

See BIRDS

JONES, Frederick BARRETT-

See BARRETT-JONES, Frederick.

In both examples it is obvious that there can be no other entries under the headings referred from. In the first instance the reader is being referred from one term to a simpler synonym of the same term, while in the second case the reference is a direct one from one form of an author's name to another.

CODES OF CATALOGUING

It cannot be stressed too frequently that accuracy and uniformity are the prerequisites of good cataloguing, and we have already seen that as far as subject-headings for a dictionary catalogue are concerned it is essential to have a definite list with which the cataloguer can work. But how about the technical process of cataloguing itself? How are we to ensure uniformity in the matter of making entries? It will be obvious to any Entrance student who devotes a little thought to the subject that there are many ways of making catalogue entries even for straightforward books, and that when the cataloguer is confronted with books written by noblemen, married women, pseudonymous and anonymous writers, corporate authors and many other varieties of authorship, decisions must be made so as to ensure uniformity of entry. These decisions, when gathered together with examples, are known as cataloguing codes. The syllabus specifically lays down that no detailed knowledge of cataloguing codes is necessary for the Entrance examination, but students should at least know that there are three well-known printed cataloguing codes in existence, viz. :

Cutter's Rules for a dictionary catalog.
(First published 1876, 4th ed. 1904)

The British Museum *Rules for compiling the catalogues in the Department of Printed Books*

(First published 1839)

The Anglo-American Joint cataloguing code, compiled by committees of the Library Association and the American Library Association

(First published 1908)

The most important of these, from the point of view of the assistant in a general public library, is the Anglo-American Joint Code, and despite the fact that no *detailed* knowledge of it is required at this stage, the student will do well to take up a copy of the Code and briefly examine its contents. The following rules, at least, should be read and understood :

1 Author entry ; 2 Joint-author entry ; 4 Illustrators , 5 Engravers ; 6 Cartographers , 7. Architects ; 8 Music , 9 Librettos , 13 Commentaries ; 15 Indexes ; 16. Concordances ; 17. Epitomes , 19 Revisions , 21 Translations , 25. Compound surnames , 26. Surnames with prefixes ; 31. Popes, sovereigns , 32. Princes of the blood , 33 Noblemen ; 34 Ecclesiastical dignitaries , 38 Pseudonyms , 39 Sobriquets , 40 Change of name ; 41 Married women ; 58 Corporate authors—general rule. 112 Anonymous works—general rule.

DESCRIPTION

As already mentioned, the fullest form of entry in a catalogue is reserved for the main entry, that is the author entry in a dictionary catalogue. There are, in fact, so many details to be included, that rules exist to ensure a uniform order for them. The details on a main entry are known as the *description* and a possible order for them is as follows .—

Author's name

Title (in the form given on the title-page)

Edition (after first)

IMPRINT

Place of publication

Name of publisher

Date of publication

COLLATION

No. of volumes and/or pages

Illustrations (type of illus. in following order)

- (i) frontispiece (*frontis.*)
- (ii) illustrations (*illus.*)
- (iii) plates (*pls.*)
- (iv) photographs (*photos*)
- (v) portraits (*portrs.*)
- (vi) maps (*maps*)
- (vii) plans (*plans*)
- (viii) facsimiles (*facsims.*)
- (ix) tables (*tabs.*)
- (x) diagrams (*diagrs.*)

Size (height in cms. or inches)

Series note (where applicable)

Contents (if necessary)

Annotation (if necessary)

Very few books, if any, will require such a full description but two examples may suffice to demonstrate the order of the details of the entry :

HOGBEN, Lancelot

502

Science for the citizen a self-educator based on the social background of scientific discovery, by Lancelot Hogben 2nd ed London · George Allen & Unwin, Ltd. 1945 Pp 1128. Illus. by J. F. Horrabin *Diagrs.* 9 ins *Primers for the Age of Plenty series—2.*

BOTT, Alan.

914.42

The Londoner's England · contemporary water-colours and drawings of London and the Home Counties . . . with descriptive text by Alan Bott. London · Avalon Press and William Collins 1947. Pp viii, 191. Illus. pls. 12 ins

The three dots (. .) in the sub-title of the second example above is a legitimate device by which the

cataloguer indicates that he has omitted some obviously unnecessary or redundant words from the title

CO-OPERATIVE CATALOGUING

This chapter is concluded with a very brief mention of co-operative cataloguing, which has just materialised in this country through the British National Bibliography. In the U.S.A. the Library of Congress has long been responsible for the central cataloguing of books and the distribution of cards to subscribing libraries. B.N.B. does not at the moment issue cards but its lists of published books are in the form of full catalogue entries and these may be cut out and pasted on cards or slips. The later developments of B.N.B. will be of interest and importance to all librarians and their staffs.

SOME FURTHER READING

Akers, S. G. Simple library cataloguing A.L.A. 1933
Introduction, and chapters V, VI and VII

Gray, Duncan Fundamentals of Librarianship 1949
Chapter 9.

Jones, A. F. Elementary cataloguing Philip. 1939

Quinn, J. H. Library cataloguing Truslove and Hanson.
1913
Chapter 3

QUESTIONS

1. Define the following, with an example of each.—
Added entry, Corporate entry; Edition; Imprint; Series entry.
2. What is (a) a pseudonymous book and (b) an anonymous book? Show how these are entered in a catalogue.
3. What are "tracings"? Write a brief note showing their particular importance in a dictionary catalogue.
4. Explain (in 250 words) how the dictionary and classified types of catalogue differ from each other.
5. Name three well-known printed codes of cataloguing rules. Which code is in use in your own library?
6. What is the purpose of providing a catalogue in a public library?

Chapter VII

ELEMENTARY CLASSIFICATION

EACH student for the Entrance examination is expected to understand the way in which the books and other material in their libraries have been grouped. The syllabus does not demand a detailed knowledge of any particular scheme of book classification, but the candidate should have a grasp of the fundamental principles of classification (or grouping) ; of the relationship between classification and cataloguing ; of the special features of book classification ; the simple rules for classifying books ; how to determine the subject-matter of a book ; as well as having an outline knowledge of such *practical* problems of book arrangement as shelf-guiding, broken order, etc. Before I deal with these points in greater detail I want to prevent young students from panicking before this section of the syllabus by assuring them that classification is a straightforward subject, and that it can be understood, even at the elementary stage, after a little quiet thought. For some reason or other, perhaps because the basic principles of classification involve the study of elementary logic, classification is one of the most feared subjects in the whole syllabus of the Library Association, but there is no justification for this.

WHAT IS CLASSIFICATION ?

Classification is the process by which we group

things according to their likenesses and separate them according to their differences. This process is an automatic one with us, because we classify unconsciously in our thoughts almost every time we use an adjective. We say "a black cat" and this in itself is classification because we are grouping that cat with all other cats which are black and are separating it from cats of other colours. We carry the grouping process a little further when we say "a big black cat," the extra adjective helping to class the cat more definitively, and to separate it from all small black cats. The object of classification is to arrange things in their most *convenient* order for the purpose in hand. Note the word *convenient*, for convenience is the deciding factor which should govern the particular way in which things are classified. I do not propose to say anything further here about the meaning and purpose of classification. It is quite simple, and further explanations may only befog students. I must point out, however, that there are several brief and eminently clear explanations, notably chapter 1 of W. C. Berwick Sayers' *Manual of classification* and the first page or so of W. Howard Phillips' *Primer of classification*, and to these the student is confidently referred.

BOOK CLASSIFICATION

As far as books are concerned, it must be obvious that there are many ways of arranging them—either by size, colour of binding, press or publisher, alphabetical by subject, alphabetical by author or systematic subject arrangement. The guiding principle of any chosen arrangement in classification is known as the characteristic. In the early days of libraries books were classified, grouped or arranged (call it what you

will) in many and varied ways, but it was eventually found out that for public libraries the most convenient characteristic, or way of arranging books, was to group them systematically by subject. Systematic subject arrangement, by the way, was found to be most convenient for both readers and librarians. Consequently, a number of schemes of book classification were evolved by librarians, published and used in practice by most libraries. The chief book (or bibliographical) schemes published to date are.—

- (a) *The Decimal Classification*, formulated by Melvil Dewey, an American, in 1876;
- (b) *The Expansive Classification*, by Charles Ammi Cutter, published in Boston, Mass., from 1891 onwards;
- (c) *The Library of Congress Classification* in process since 1899;
- (d) *The Subject Classification* of James Duff Brown, published in England in 1906;
- (e) *The Universal Decimal Classification*, an expansion of the Dewey scheme begun at Brussels in 1895;
- (f) *The Colon Classification* of S. R. Ranganathan, published at Madras in 1933;
- (g) *The System of Bibliographical Classification*, by H. E. Bliss, published at New York, from 1935 onwards.

The most popular of the above schemes, for public libraries both here and in America, has been the *Decimal Classification* of Melvil Dewey. Cutter's *Expansive* scheme has been adopted by a few libraries in America, but has had no vogue in Europe, although European librarians have admired some of its features. The *Library of Congress* classification, although first formulated for that particular library, has been

adopted in some other libraries, notably the National Library of Wales, Edinburgh Public Libraries and Wigan Reference Library. About 40 public libraries in England are classed according to Brown's *Subject Classification*, which is said to have been found satisfactory for small and medium-sized English public libraries. The *Universal Decimal Classification*, or Brussels expansion of Dewey, is a very minute classification and has been found suitable for many special libraries which have to arrange MSS, cuttings, prints, pictures and other miscellaneous material as well as books. The *Colon Classification* and the *Bibliographical Classification* of H. E. Bliss* have not yet, to my knowledge, been put into practice in a British library, but they are both interesting schemes which will have pronounced effects upon book classification in the future.

SPECIAL FEATURES OF BOOK CLASSIFICATION

As will already have been gathered, a printed classification for arranging books is called a *scheme*. The *schedules* are the headings which comprise the scheme. In addition to the schedules, systems of book classification include certain auxiliaries such as —

- (a) a Generalia class
- (b) form classes
- (c) form divisions
- (d) a notation
- (e) an index

None of the above features are necessary in, nor are they part of, a classification of knowledge (or ideas).

* The full schedules have not yet been published, but Vols I and II have appeared, covering classes A-K. Three or four special libraries in the United Kingdom have now adopted the scheme.

But any one book contains a great number of ideas, and a scheme for classifying books will be quite different from a classification of ideas. The very order of the schedules will be different, because a good book classification must be governed by the physical form of books. The first three of the five features listed above appear in most book schemes because the physical form of books dictates their presence. The last two features, the notation and the index, are essential because without them we could not apply the schedules of a scheme to the actual books on the shelves. At this stage in his study of classification, all the student need know is a brief definition of each of the features listed above, together with some idea of their purpose.

A *Generalia class* is a special feature of a book classification to accommodate such general works as encyclopædias, general periodicals and newspapers, and other types of books which treat of knowledge in general. Dewey's *Generalia class* in the *Decimal Classification* has an outline as follows :—

- 000 General Works
- 010 Bibliography
- 020 Library Economy
- 030 General Encyclopædias
- 040 General Collected essays
- 050 General Periodicals
- 060 General Societies (including Museums)
- 070 Journalism—Newspapers
- 080 Polygraphy—Special Libraries
- 090 Book rarities

Generalia classes are usually considered to be form classes, i.e., a class of books grouped by the *form* in which they are written and presented. In so far as it includes encyclopædias, essays, periodicals, bibliographies and newspapers, Dewey's *Generalia class*

is indeed a form class, but because it contains such actual subjects as librarianship, journalism, book rarities and museums, it is more accurately described as a mixture of a form and subject class.

Form classes, as I have just said, are those containing books written in a certain form, e.g., in the form of an encyclopædia, or of an essay, or in the form of poetry or drama. The normal form class in a book classification is the Literature class, which includes poetry, drama, fiction, essays, speeches, etc. Dewey's Literature class in the *Decimal Classification* is numbered 800-899. In this class, Dewey divides first by language, e.g.:

- 800 Literature—general
- 810 American literature
- 820 English literature
- 830 German literature
- 840 French literature
- etc., etc.

Within these divisions, he again sub-divides, this time according to the form in which the books are written, e.g.:

- 820 English literature—general
- 821 „ poetry
- 822 „ drama
- 823 „ fiction
- 824 „ essays
- 825 „ oratory
- 826 „ letters
- 827 „ satire and humour
- 828 „ miscellany

Even though Dewey's 800 class appears to be completely a form class, it is again to some small extent a mixture of form and subject, because it includes (and rightly so) books *about* the various forms as well as books written in the various forms. For example, the

English poetry schedules will include not only Browning's *Poems*, but also books *about* Browning's poetry.

Form divisions are really the generalia divisions of each particular subject. It will be obvious to students that any subject may be presented in books in different forms, say in essay or encyclopædic form, or from different standpoints, such as from the historical or philosophical standpoint. Recognising this, the formulators of the chief bibliographical schemes have added "form divisions" to the schedules of their schemes. In the *Decimal Classification* these are known as *common form sub-divisions*, because they can be applied to many (though not to all) parts of the schedules. These common form sub-divisions are nine in number, as follows:—

- 01 Philosophy, Theories
- 02 Compends, outlines
- 03 Dictionaries, encyclopædias
- 04 Essays, lectures
- 05 Periodicals
- 06 Societies, associations
- 07 Education, study, teaching
- 08 Polygraphy, collections
- 09 History

A few simple examples of their use will suffice, e.g.:

"The Philosophy of history"—900 = History, 01 = Philosophy, therefore the full class number is 901;

"The History of philosophy"—100 = Philosophy, 09 = History, therefore the full class number is 109;

"An Outline of science"—500 = Science, 02 = Outlines, therefore the full class number is 502;

"Encyclopædia of art"—700 = Art, 03 = Encyclopædias, therefore the class number is 703:

“The Teaching of music”—780 = Music, 07 = Study and teaching, therefore the class number is 780.7

A *notation* consists of the symbols which are adopted in a book classification to signify the classes, divisions, and sub-divisions which form the schedules. Notations may be *pure* or *mixed*, a pure notation being one in which only one kind of symbol is used, and a mixed notation being one in which two or more kinds of symbols are used. The notation of the *Decimal Classification* is pure, as figures only are used, but the notations of the *Subject Classification* and the *Library of Congress Classification* are mixed, for in both of them letters and figures form the notation. In passing, it may be remarked that the chief assets of a notation are that it should be brief, simple, flexible and easy to say, read and understand. It should also convey as much as possible the order of the schedules. It does not matter whether a notation is pure or mixed, so long as it satisfies most or all of these conditions.

An *index* is an alphabetical list of the terms or names used in the schedules, giving the notation for each term. It is an essential tool, without which no book classification can be complete. There are two types of index—the specific and the relative. The former gives one entry only for each subject mentioned in the schedules, an example of the specific index is that printed at the end of Brown's *Subject Classification*. The relative index, on the other hand, lists each subject in all its relations with other subjects. The index at the end of Dewey's *Decimal Classification* is a relative index. The difference between these two types of index may best be illustrated by a simple comparison taken from the indexes of Brown and Dewey:—

<i>Brown's Specific Index</i>	<i>Dewey's Relative Index</i>
Porcelain	Porcelain
D 972	ceramics 738.2
	chemic technology 666 5
	cleaning domestic
	economy 648 54
	plates and vessels
	prac chemistry 542 232
	radio insulating
	material 621.3841
	791014
	strength of, eng
	supports, photo
	chem. 771.5265
	ware domestic
	economy 642 7

To conclude this section on book classification, here, in brief, are the essentials of a good bibliographical scheme. It should be complete, covering all branches of knowledge, and it should be kept up-to-date by frequent revisions. It should be systematic, proceeding from the simple to the complex, and the terms used in it should be clear and comprehensive. It should be printed in convenient form and it should be flexible and expansible. Finally, it should include, as we have already seen, generalia and form classes, form divisions, a suitable notation and an index to the schedules.

PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF BOOK CLASSIFICATION

Although it is realised that the student at this early stage neither gets, nor is ready for, practical experience in classifying books, he may justifiably be asked such questions as how to determine the subject-matter of a book, and the rules to be observed when classifying books. Both these points are covered in note form in the chapter headed "Practical application of book

classification" in W Howard Phillips' invaluable little book *A Primer of Book Classification*. There is no point in repeating them here, so long as the student fully understands the necessity for referring to these pages in Phillips without further delay.

Elementary problems of shelf arrangement, guiding and display work are more likely to be posed in the examination, and these must be covered in some detail. Once books are classified according to a recognised bibliographical scheme, it would appear that the obvious order in which to shelve them would be strictly according to the notation. One does not have to work long in a library, however, to realise that practical considerations preclude this. Fiction, for instance, is stocked in such numbers that, even if it were classified at 823 (assuming the *Decimal Classification* to be the one in use) it would dislocate the whole scheme of arrangement if it were shelved at that number. Most libraries, therefore, treat fiction entirely separately and arrange it on the shelves in alphabetical order of author. Music, too, on account of its size, demands a different type of shelving from the normal, and this usually means that it cannot be shelved between the photography books of 770-779 and the sports and pastimes books of 790-799 (I again assume the use of the *Decimal Classification*). In addition, in nearly every class there are oversized books such as quartos and folios which demand special shelving and arrangement. The commonest treatment for oversized books is to shelve them all together in a separate sequence from 000 to 999. The catalogue entries for these books must be marked in some way so that readers wanting any of these books will be directed to the oversized shelves. Finally, shelf arrangement

may be affected by displays of books on particular subjects which the library may arrange from time to time. Books forming part of a display will be taken out of their correct classified sequence and put together on special shelves, book troughs or display tables. This is called *broken order*, but note that the shelving of oversized books in a separate sequence of the scheme is not broken order so much as a parallel arrangement.

One of the most important practical aspects of book classification is that of guiding the library. A library without guides is worse than a road system without signposts. The guides usually provided are :—

- (a) a catalogue;
- (b) a plan of the library;
- (c) class guides printed at the end of each case;
- (d) shelf guides;
- (e) lettering on the spines of the books;
- (f) a personal guide or "library host;"
- (g) a printed pamphlet describing the use of the catalogue and containing a brief explanation of the classification scheme and shelf arrangement.

By far the most important of those listed above is the personal guide or library host. Personal experience tells us that there are so many posters and placards in modern life that people generally are becoming immune to written advice and directions. But people will still take notice of oral advice and this is where the personal guide comes in useful. A number of libraries have successfully instituted the practice of personally showing round new readers, and explaining the system of book arrangement to them. The library

host will, it is hoped, soon become a permanent feature in all libraries.

CLASSIFICATION AND ITS RELATION TO CATALOGUING

For a description of the classified catalogue the student should turn to the chapter on elementary cataloguing. I conclude the present chapter with a brief account of the relationships between classification and cataloguing. These two subjects are complementary because they are both aids which librarians have devised to help readers to find books. The essential difference between classification and cataloguing is that whereas in classification a book may be given only one place on the shelves, in the catalogue it may be represented in several places. For example, a book treating equally on architecture, sculpture, painting and engraving presents a problem to the classifier. He can give it only one placing shall he place it with the books on architecture, with those on painting, with those on engraving, with those on sculpture, or shall he place it with the general books on art? Whatever decision he comes to, the classifier should be guided by the law of convenience, that is, after a careful study of the book he should place it where it will be most useful to the majority of readers. The cataloguer has no such problem. dealing with cards or slips he can represent the book in the catalogue under *each* of its subjects, if necessary, so that students of architecture, engraving, painting and sculpture will, on consulting the catalogue, be informed of the book's presence and place in the library.

In this way, therefore, are cataloguing and classification complementary and of mutual assistance to each other.

SOME FURTHER READING

Brown, J. D Manual of library economy, revised by
W. C Berwick Sayers. 6th ed. 1949.
Chapters 15 and 17

Phillips, W Howard. A Primer of book classification
Revised ed 1946
Pages 9-10, 20-54.

Sayers, W. C Berwick An Introduction to library
classification. 7th ed 1947
Chapter 1, also Preface for the beginner

Sayers, W C Berwick. Manual of book classification.
2nd ed 1947.
Preface, and Chapter 1.

QUESTIONS

1. What do you need to know about a book before classifying it?
2. Define the following, with examples :—(a) generalia class, (b) a form class (c) common form sub-divisions
3. What is meant by (a) a mixed notation, (b) relative index, (c) specific index? Illustrate
4. What are the chief rules for classifying books?
5. What guides do you consider necessary in a modern lending library to give readers the fullest information about the arrangement of the books?
6. In what ways are classification and cataloguing complementary to each other?

Chapter VIII

REFERENCE MATERIAL

THE most straightforward part of the Entrance examination syllabus is part 3, headed *Reference material* In this section 23 general reference books are listed, and candidates will be examined on their knowledge of these The majority of these reference books will be found on the shelves of even the smallest libraries and students must handle them and get to know their scope, contents, arrangement and use as thoroughly as possible In this chapter I content myself with a brief description of each of these books, but it cannot be stressed too strongly that there is no alternative to constant personal handling of them and practice in their use The questions at the end of this chapter will afford some practice, but students should go much further than this, if possible setting themselves problems which can only be answered by recourse to these set books Knowledge of reference books cannot be taught by a text-book or a correspondence course : only personal practice in the use of them will suffice.

Whitaker's Almanack

A truly general reference book containing, as its title-page says . . . "a vast amount of information respecting the government, finances, population, commerce, and general statistics of the various nations of

the world, with an index containing 35,000 references " It has appeared annually since 1868, and is now published in three editions—(a) a library edition in leather binding and with coloured maps, (b) a complete edition bound in cloth ; and (c) a shorter edition in paper covers The cloth-bound edition is the one most generally stocked in public reference libraries, and it should be particularly noted that the shorter edition is very unsatisfactory for library purposes because it contains only about 60 per cent. of the total pages of the complete edition The key to *Whitaker's Almanack* is its index if you want information, say, about canals, refer to the index (which is at the beginning of the book) for the page reference. A perusal of the index as a whole will afford an idea of the tremendous scope of this popular and much-used reference book

Willing's Press Guide

Has been published annually since 1874. The main index in the book is an alphabetical list of newspapers and periodicals published in Great Britain and Ireland, giving the year of establishment of the publication, its frequency, price and the address of its editorial offices. Following this is a classified index of periodicals arranged alphabetically by subject for a complete list of British archæological publications, for instance, look up "Archæology" in this classified list. The *Guide* goes on to list dominion, colonial and foreign publications. Much other useful information is contained in the book, including, among other items, the London addresses of provincial publications, details of newsreels, and a list of reporting and news agencies.

Statesman's Year Book

An annual publication which first appeared in 1864. It is a reference book about the countries of the world containing statistics and general information about them. The edition I describe here begins with information about the United Nations—its membership, organs, budgets, and specialised agencies such as UNESCO and UNRRA. Then follows a most useful set of comparative statistical tables about world food production. The main part of the book is a list of countries—first, the British Commonwealth of Nations, then the United States of America (dealt with state by state), and finally other foreign countries arranged alphabetically. Under each country or state information is given under the following headings:—Constitution and government; Local government; Area and population; Religion and education; Justice; Finance; Defence; Production and industry; Commerce; Transportation and Communications; Banking and Credit; Money, weights and measures; Diplomatic representatives; and Books of Reference giving further information about the countries.

The Oxford Companion to English Literature, edited by Sir Paul Harvey

An encyclopædia of English literature, first published in 1932, revised in later editions. It contains authors, titles, characters in books, allusions and literary references in one alphabetical sequence. Under every English writer (and the best-known foreign ones) will be found the dates of birth and death, brief biographical details and chief works (with dates of publications). Under titles of books, a brief synopsis

is given in most cases, while under the name of each character a reference is given to the author and title of the book in which the character features. The second edition of the *Oxford Companion* contains a perpetual calendar and a valuable chapter on copyright and the legal deposit of books. Thus, the sort of questions, among others, that this reference book can answer are —

- (a) what were the chief works of Dryden and their dates of publication?
- (b) who wrote *Polyolbion*?
- (c) in what book does George Osborne appear?

Haydn's Dictionary of dates

This one-volume reference book first appeared in 1841 and has run into very many editions since then. It does not, however, appear at regular intervals and the last edition was published in 1910. It is an invaluable historical work, in the form of an alphabetical list of places, peoples and movements with historical data under each entry. For instance, under the heading *Libraries* will be found a chronological outline of their history. A most useful book for anyone requiring historical outlines of *any* subject, or for those who wish to check dates of battles, accessions, dates of birth and death of historical personages, Parliamentary Acts or events of almost any kind. Haydn does not confine himself to English history: his book covers world history.

Kempe's Engineer's Year Book

Has appeared annually since 1894. Previously in one volume, it has recently been enlarged to two volumes, but the two form one complete book and are not sold separately. It is on a three-year revision plan, so that

each volume is fully revised once in three years, minor corrections being effected on the other two volumes. The *Year Book* contains formulæ, tables, data and memoranda for civil, mechanical, electrical, marine, gas, steam, aero, mine and metallurgical engineering. Kempe is best approached by the index, which is a relative one of over 70 pages. Another useful feature is the buyer's guide at the end of the book—a classified directory of the leading engineering and allied firms which advertise in the *Year Book*.

Brewer's Dictionary of Phrase and fable

How better can one describe this unique reference book than by citing its sub-title—"the derivation, source or origin of common phrases, allusions and words that have a tale to tell." One might also quote a phrase of the compiler's when he described his book as "a treasury of literary bric-à-brac" It is, in fact, a monumental compilation of words and phrases, alphabetically arranged, with explanations The sort of queries that this book can answer are —

- (a) what was the origin of the barber's pole ?
- (b) what was the origin of the name "Piccadilly" ?

There is also an appendix consisting of an alphabetical list of English writers, with brief biographical details of each. Dr. Brewer also compiled a *Readers' Guide* on similar lines to his *Dictionary*, except that it deals more specifically with books and reading.

Who's Who

An annual biographical dictionary which published its centenary volume in 1948 It contains many thousands of entries, arranged alphabetically, chiefly of English men and women but also including notable

foreigners. The information under each entry includes full name, description, date of birth, children (if any), where educated, activities, publications, recreations, clubs and present address and telephone number. Entries are made by autobiographees themselves, and once access is gained to *Who's Who*, the entry remains in until the death or criminal conviction of the person. *Who's Who* deals with living people, but is supplemented by three volumes of *Who Was Who*, covering notabilities who died within the periods 1897-1915, 1916-1928 and 1929-1940 respectively. *Who's Who* also contains, apart from the main list of biographies, a list of abbreviations used, an obituary list of the notabilities who died during the previous year, and information about the Royal Family.

Subject Index to Periodicals

This has been published annually by the Library Association since 1915 except for the years 1923 to 1925 inclusive when no volumes were issued. The book is arranged alphabetically by subject, and under each subject heading will be found the authors, titles and names and dates of publications in which articles on the subject appeared during the year covered. Those wishing to find out, for example, what articles were written on the Atomic Bomb during 1946 will find the references under "Atomic Bomb" in the *Subject Index to Periodicals* for 1946. The first approach to the book should be via the preface, which gives brief instructions on how to use the index, stressing that as it is arranged on dictionary catalogue principles, cross-references play an important part in its use.

Stevenson's Book of Quotations

The full title of this reference book is the "Home

Book of quotations : classical and modern," compiled by Burton E. Stevenson. It is an American publication, and was first issued in 1934. The quotations, over 50,000 of them, are arranged alphabetically by subject, and under each subject alphabetically by author. There is an index of authors, so that if the author of a quotation is known the search can be narrowed down by referring to this index. Finally, there is a concordance or word-index to the quotations. In almost every quotation there will be one or two catchwords and reference to these in the concordance will usually direct the enquirer to the full quotation and other details he requires. At the beginning of the book there is a guide to its use, and all students should read and master this. It should be noted that Stevenson is the compiler of a companion volume entitled *Stevenson's Book of Shakespeare Quotations*.

Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians

First published in 1879, the 4th edition edited by H C Colles appeared in 5 volumes and a supplementary volume in 1940. It is the standard encyclo-pædia of music and it contains signed articles, with bibliographies. The volumes are arranged in one alphabetical sequence of entries, which include musical history, theory and practice, instruments, musical terms, biographies of musicians and articles on individual compositions, songs and operas. It does not give opera plots. for these one must refer either to Gustav Kobbé's *Complete opera book* or to J. Walker McSpadden's *Opera synopses*. Grove is very useful for the lists of works by each composer, arranged where possible by the opus numbers. The five volumes of Grove are augmented by an American

supplement, being the sixth volume of the complete work. This appeared in 1928, being edited by Waldo Pratt.

Encyclopædia Britannica

This, of course, is the standard general reference encyclopædia in English. Now in its 14th edition, it first appeared in 1768-1771 when it consisted only of three volumes. The second edition, in 1777-84, was in ten volumes and successive editions grew progressively in size until the 14th edition, which came out in 1929, and consisted of 24 volumes. Entries and articles in the encyclopædia are arranged alphabetically; articles on specific subjects are written by specialists and are signed with the initials of the writers. An index of the initials at the beginning of the encyclopædia gives the full names and designations of the contributors. Features of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* are the bibliographies provided under each article, the excellent illustrations and the atlas and the relative index to the whole encyclopædia, both the latter being contained in volume 24. Although originally a British publication, it is rapidly becoming Americanised and due allowance must be made for this, especially in the political and historical articles. In 1946-47 a new issue of the encyclopædia appeared: this was not the 15th edition but the 14th edition revised. The *Encyclopædia Britannica* is now stated to be on a ten-year revision basis and no actual 15th edition is therefore intended for publication. Finally, mention should be made of the *Encyclopædia Britannica Book of the Year*. This, a yearly one-volume supplement, first appeared just before World War II and has become a regular feature since the war. Another feature of the Britannica service is that purchasers receive a number of coupons and are

entitled to write to the publishers for information on any subject, enclosing a coupon each time they write.

Dictionary of National Biography

Familiarly known as the "D.N.B.," this standard biographical dictionary was first published in 63 volumes from 1885-1901. In 1908-09, however, the 63 volumes were re-issued on thinner paper in 22 volumes and edited by Sir Leslie Stephen and Sir Sidney Lee. An examination of the 22 volumes will show that the first 21 cover biographies from A to Z, while volume 22 forms the first supplement. The second and third supplements, covering the lives of celebrities up to 1921, appeared in 1912 and 1927 respectively. Two more supplements have since covered the lives of celebrities up to 1940, while a one-volume edition of the whole work up to 1921 appeared in 1930 as the *Concise Dictionary of National Biography*. The reputation of the D.N.B. as a comprehensive and scholarly reference book on English biography is well-founded. The complete work contains over 31,000 entries. Articles, which are of varying length, are written by specialists and are signed. Excellent bibliographies are provided, though these are not now up to date.

Cruden's Concordance to the Old and New Testaments

First published in 1737 and re-issued many times since by different publishers. It is useful for its concordance to the Apocrypha, although some editions have omitted this feature. Proper names are included in the concordance as well as common words. Undoubtedly Cruden is a vast store-house of information on the Bible, its contents and its allusions.

Times Survey Atlas of the World

This atlas, which appeared from 1920 to 1922, is perhaps best described by its sub-title, which reads : " a comprehensive series of new and authentic maps reduced from the national surveys of the world and the special surveys of travellers and explorers, with a general index of over 200,000 names " The original issue was of 112 double maps in loose-leaf form, with the index in a separate volume, but bound editions were later produced in both England and America. Students should become thoroughly acquainted with this atlas and should become practised in the finding of places on the maps from the index.

Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language

An American dictionary, the first edition of which dates from 1828. It is famous for the clarity of its definitions and noteworthy also because its alphabetical list of words contains foreign phrases, abbreviations, proverbs and proper names in the same sequence. Its appendices include a list of abbreviations, signs and symbols, forms of address, a pronouncing gazetteer and a pronouncing biographical dictionary. On looking into Webster the discerning student will note that each page is divided into an upper and a lower part, the latter containing minor, obsolete and rare words, alternative spellings and the longer proverbs and foreign phrases.

Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature

An American publication, issued by the H. W. Wilson Co. It indexes in dictionary catalogue form,

that is, under author, subject and title (when necessary), articles appearing in well over 100 periodicals. It differs from the Library Association's *Subject Index to Periodicals* in that it is published fortnightly and is cumulative. By "cumulative" we mean that the fortnightly numbers are eventually gathered together and put into one alphabetical sequence to form an annual volume. This process is continued with the annual volumes which are themselves eventually gathered together into "permanent cumulated volumes" generally covering four or five years. The *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* has been issued since 1900 and there are now 16 permanent cumulated volumes covering 1900 to April 1949.

Chambers' Encyclopædia

An old-established family type encyclopædia in fifteen volumes. It first appeared in 1860-68 but several editions have appeared since then, the latest being that of 1950.

The articles are generally shorter than those in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and are now (1950 edition) signed, although this was not the case in earlier editions. The articles are also less scholarly than those in the *Britannica* though this does not mean that they are less accurate or reliable. The longer articles have brief but up-to-date bibliographies, while the old line illustrations of earlier editions have now been replaced by excellent plates. The fifteenth volume consists of maps, with an excellent index of places, and an index to the entire work.

Whitaker's Cumulative Booklist

This appears quarterly as a classified list of books published during the preceding quarter. An author

and title index is added to the list which is cumulated from the lists of recently published books which appear weekly in *The Bookseller*. The quarterly lists are themselves cumulated as the year goes on to form six-monthly, nine-monthly and finally twelve-monthly volumes, the latter forming the annual volume. Annual volumes have now been published since 1926 and, together with the *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature*, they form an invaluable aid to tracing details of English books published since 1926. Each entry gives author, title, size, pagination, publisher and price of the book, also the month in which the book was published. Abbreviations are widely used, and students should learn the meaning of these to aid them in making their references quickly.

Post Office Telephone Directories

Telephone directories are most useful for supplying addresses of private individuals and firms, and they are often more reliable than local directories as they are revised and kept up to date more frequently. Local telephone directories are issued in sections, but a yearly subscription to the G.P.O. will provide libraries with a complete set of British telephone directories as they are published, and it will be found that the sections are bound together into volumes. A separate index of places in booklet form proves invaluable to reference assistants. The set is as follows:—

Vol. 1 London (in 4 parts, A-D, E-K, L-R, S-Z)
Note that there is also a useful classified (trades and professional) directory published for London.

Vol. 2a. Sections 2-12, covering areas Southend ; Colchester ; Norwich, Cambridge ; Bedford ; Oxford, Reading, Guildford ; Tunbridge Wells ; Canterbury ; Brighton

Vol. 2b. Sections 13-22, covering areas Portsmouth ; Southampton ; Bournemouth ; Exeter , Plymouth ; Taunton ; Bristol ; Gloucester ; South Wales (East) ; Swansea

Vol. 3. Sections 23-30 covering areas Chester , Shrewsbury , Stoke , Birmingham ; Coventry ; Nottingham ; Leicester ; Peterborough.

Vol. 4a. Sections 31-38, covering areas Lincoln ; Sheffield ; York , Middlesbrough ; Newcastle ; Leeds ; Bradford , Hull district.

Vol. 4b. Sections 39-44, covering areas Manchester , Liverpool ; Isle of Man , Preston , Blackburn ; Cumberland ; West and North Lancashire.

Vol. 5 Sections 45-50, covering areas Aberdeen , Dundee , Edinburgh ; Glasgow , Scotland West ; Northern Ireland.

There is a separate directory for Eire but this can be purchased from the G.P.O.

Cumulative Book Index

Another American publication, issued by the H. W. Wilson Co. It is a monthly list of books published in the English language, arranged in dictionary catalogue form, and is known to librarians as the C.B.I. It cumulates month after month until a six-monthly volume is formed. Pseudonyms are entered under real names (e.g. Shute under Norway) and great trouble is obviously taken to give the full Christian names of authors. Has been appearing since 1898, and since 1930 it has included books published in Great Britain and the Commonwealth as well as those published in the U.S.A. The present state of the cumulated volumes is as follows :—

1928-1932 volume.	1938-1942 volume
1933-1937 volume.	1943-1948 volume.

Note that the C.B.I. supplements the *U.S. Catalog of Books in Print, January 1, 1928*

World List of Scientific Periodicals

The full title of this work is *A World List of Scientific Periodicals published in the years 1900-1933*. It first appeared in 1925-27, when it covered periodicals down to 1921, but the second edition, published in 1934, covered periodicals to 1933. A third edition is in preparation. It lists alphabetically about 25,000 periodicals, each being serially numbered. Under each periodical is given (a) full title, (b) abbreviated title in italics, and (c) indications of the libraries holding copies and their particular holdings. Some 187 libraries are listed, and in using the *World List* the student should particularly note and master the scheme of abbreviations for various libraries. It is to be noted that many periodicals are listed showing that no library apparently has holdings of them.

Murray's New English Dictionary

The full title of this standard dictionary of our language is *The New English Dictionary on historical principles: founded mainly on materials collected by the Philological Society*. It was published, in ten volumes and a supplement, between 1888 and 1933 by the Oxford University Press, and is familiarly known either as *Murray's Dictionary*, the *New English Dictionary* or the *Oxford English Dictionary*. It is often referred to as the N.E.D. or the O E D. A monumental work, its vocabulary exceeds 410,000 words, for each of which it gives pronunciation, alternative spelling, derivation and definition. It is particularly noteworthy for its historical method of definition, as it gives, with quotations, differences of meaning and usage during the past 800 years. It claims, in fact, to include all words now in use or known to have been in use since the year 1150.

Students should note that "offshoots" of the complete Murray are available in the following forms —

Shorter Oxford English Dictionary. 2 vols. O.U.P.

3rd ed 1944

Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. O U P

1929

Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English. O.U.P.
1924

QUESTIONS

1. Select six one-volume quick reference books for use in a branch library. Do not include local directories, bus or rail guides
2. Which reference books would you turn to in answering the following questions —
 - (a) biographical material about Anthony Eden
 - (b) who wrote the line "They also serve who only stand and wait"?
 - (c) import and export figures of Uruguay.
 - (d) names and addresses of newspapers published in Leeds
3. Describe briefly the contents, scope and arrangement of any *three* of the following reference books. Cruden's *Concordance*, *Subject Index to Periodicals*, Grove's *Dictionary of Music and Musicians*, *Who's Who*, Whitaker's *Cumulative Booklist*
4. Mention and describe any well-known atlas suitable for public use in a reference library.
5. What are the points of difference between (a) the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and Chambers' *Encyclopædia*? and (b) the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and the *Subject Index to Periodicals*?
6. What is meant by the word "cumulative"? Give examples of one English and one American publication which illustrate your explanation

Chapter IX

EXAMINATION HINTS AND TECHNIQUE

IN view of the fact that students for the Entrance examination and readers of this book will be new to Library Association examinations, I feel that it will not be out of place to conclude with a brief chapter giving practical advice on how best to approach the examination. Much of what I say should be borne in mind throughout the student's progress in librarianship. All of what I shall say has been said before, and it will no doubt be said many times again. The fact that such constant repetition is necessary is a sign that few students take any real notice of this advice but, for what it is worth, I am repeating it in the hope that some candidates will take due notice and will translate my hints into practice in the examination room.

GENERAL NOTES

Library Association examinations are held twice yearly in various of the cities and larger towns of the United Kingdom. The Entrance examination is held each May and November, and entry forms, duly completed and countersigned by the candidate's Chief Librarian, are due at the Library Association headquarters by March 15th and September 15th each year. The examination lasts one day only, two $1\frac{1}{2}$ hour papers being taken in the morning between 10 a.m.

and 1 p.m. and two 1½ hour papers being taken in the afternoon between 2.30 and 5.30 p.m. In the examination room, each candidate is provided with an examination answer book, on the front of which he should write his number, the date and the name of the particular examination he is taking, in this case, Entrance. Printed on the front cover of the book is a list of instructions to candidates. These should be read most carefully : among other things, it is pointed out that the question need not be written out, but that the number of the question should appear on the top of each sheet of the answer to it. Candidates should also particularly note that they should begin each answer on a fresh page, that they should not write in the margin, and that handwriting, punctuation, spelling and general presentation of answers will be taken into consideration by the examiners when marking the answers.

On receiving the question paper, candidates will note that in each part of the Entrance examination *five* questions are set, of which *three* must be attempted. All questions carry equal marks, and they may be attempted in any order.

PRESENTATION OF ANSWERS

Examiners are only human, and when they are confronted with piles of examination scripts to mark they perhaps become slightly less than human. The wise candidate will bear this continually in mind and will try to present his answers in an attractive style planned to appeal to the examiner straight away. Here, by "style" I do not mean literary style : I shall have a little to say about that later in this chapter. I mean instead the actual set-out of written matter.

upon the pages of the examination answer book. The candidate should attend the examination armed with his favourite pen, for he will have to write rapidly, and at the same time he should endeavour to write *legibly*. Legibility of handwriting should go without saying, but one regrets to say that there are still very many people about whose handwriting is difficult and sometimes impossible to decipher. Those who fall into this category should take special care in the examination, for examiners are not endeared to candidates whose writing is so bad that their answers take twice as long to read as the normal script. All candidates get fair treatment: make no mistake about that. But a warning is printed on the cover of every Library Association examination answer book that style, handwriting and punctuation will be taken into consideration when marking, and these factors might very well make all the difference between a pass and a fail in the case of a border-line script.

Another important factor in presentation is the judicious use of paragraphs. Everybody is aware of the need for paragraphs but experience has shown that in the examination room many students scribble away laboriously and forget all about paragraphisation. Many who do split their answers into paragraphs do so without any rhyme or reason. The result is not a planned answer but one that is paragraphed just when the candidate happened to think about it. Another point: students should not forget to indent the first line of each paragraph.

The only sure way to produce a planned answer, divided into logical paragraphs, is to get into the habit of jotting down a skeleton answer on a piece of rough paper before starting the actual script answer. Most

examination questions, particularly those demanding answers in the form of brief essays, should be approached in this way. Read the question carefully, think of all the possible points you wish to make and jot them down on your rough paper or blotter. Then put them into some sort of sequence under three or four headings. These will later form your paragraphs, and there are few questions that cannot be attempted in four paragraphs, as follows —*Introduction, Thesis, Explanation* (with examples if possible), *Conclusion*. If the student feels that the use of the skeleton outline is going to be difficult he should practise it before the examination. Most students will quickly get into the way of it and will save themselves time and trouble in the examination, as well as producing a neater, more logical and better presented answer.

LENGTH OF ANSWERS

With three questions to be attempted in $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours, this, on the face of it, gives half an hour for each answer. Students would, however, be well advised to allow only 25 minutes per answer, for considerable time is wasted in reading and re-reading questions, and in reading through the answers which have been committed to paper. Candidates should work with a watch if possible, and they should get practice beforehand by answering the questions set at previous examinations. These are printed in the *Library Association Year Book* and are an indispensable guide to the standards of the examination. The *L.A. Year Book* questions *must* be studied throughout the candidate's preparation, and I suggest that just before the examination he tries to answer them under examination room conditions, that is, without notes and text-books.

and working with the clock. In the examination, unless answers are particularly asked for in note form, they should be written in essay form. As a general guide, essay answers should be *about* 300 words long, that is, just about a page or slightly over a page of the examination book in the normal person's handwriting. If the question gives definite guidance on the length of the answer required (e.g. *Write notes, about 150 words each, on two of the following . . .*) entrants should make sure that their answers comply with the stated length. Certainly they should not err by more than 30 words either above or below the length wanted.

LITERARY STYLE

Throughout the examinations a clear and concise literary style is most important. Whether the candidate is discussing the pros and cons of fines in public libraries or the merits and demerits of the dictionary catalogue, all answers should be presented to the examiners in good, clear, succinct English prose. Style is particularly important in the essay which, as the syllabus says, is set to discover the ability of entrants to express themselves clearly and grammatically. Many students are approaching the essay part of the examination with some trepidation, chiefly because they do not know what subjects are likely to be set. They need have no fears on this count. The essay is not set to test knowledge but merely to test the entrant's ability to write reasonably good English. Obviously, some background of general knowledge will be called for, but the student who reads his daily papers and who has the normal interests in life is sure to find some subject among the set alterna-

tives on which he can write an essay Note that 500 words is the required length: certainly not less than 450 or more than 550 will be acceptable to the examiners.

There is really little I can say about actual literary style that has not been said infinitely better by proved experts I would refer my readers, among other books, to Guy Pocock's *Pen and ink*, which gives much valuable advice on the writing of good English to the person who is prepared to read it thoughtfully

To the habitual bad speller and poor punctuator the only advice I can give is that he should pay more attention to the printed words and sentences in the books and newspapers he reads in his daily life But much bad spelling and poor punctuation is sheer carelessness one answer is to acquire the habit of reading through what has been written before going on with the next question. If this were done by all candidates many mistakes of spelling, punctuation, omitted words and bad sentence construction would be averted

CONCLUSION

I have tried, in this little book, to cover the ground as completely as possible, but I must repeat what I have said earlier that students must resort to the other recommended reading and not stop short with this Entrance examination, although students may be sure that answers of an elementary level only are expected, and that the examination remains a test of whether, after a year or so's experience in a library, the assistant is suitable for a career in librarianship. It remains,

largely, a test of common sense and of observation of everyday practice. But some work is quite definitely needed in addition, plus the usual amount of luck. To all my readers who are prepared to make the effort of working towards success in the Entrance examination I say—"the best of luck."

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